



Toward a
New Curriculum
Extending Educational Opportunities
of
Children Youth and Adults

TOWARD A NEW CURRICULUM

Extending the Educational Opportunity of Children, Youth, and Adults

1944 YEARBOOK, DEPARTMENT OF
SUPERVISION AND CURRICULUM
DEVELOPMENT OF THE NATIONAL
EDUCATION ASSOCIATION OF
THE UNITED STATES

1201 Sixteenth Street, Northwest
Washington 6, D.C.

Third Printing December, 1945

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By the Department of Supervision and Curriculum Development
National Education Association

Price \$2

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Toward a New Curriculum— An Introduction

Many schools are initiating extensions of educational opportunities of new groups of people, in new areas of experience, and in new periods of the day and the year.

We frequently hear discussion of an idea or description of a practice to the effect that schools should:

- Include for every child some definite work experience

- Provide day care for children

- Stress industrial training

- Develop thru participation greater competence with democratic processes

- Make use of school facilities for longer hours thruout the year

- Reach out-of-school youth and adults with appropriate educational experiences

- Provide preinduction courses for prospective members of the armed forces

- Make needed consumer information available to the entire community

- Mobilize community resources for meeting problems of group and individual living and learning

- Develop broad programs of summer recreation and education

- Learn new ways of thinking and acting for the present and future world situations.

These ideas and practices seem to grow out of developments in the recent and current economic, political, and social scenes, educational theory, and changing concepts of the role of the school in the community. Whatever their source, they are aspects of public education significant to the present and to the future. The concept that schooling includes more than reading, writing, and computing has been growing for many years. Practical realistic education has brought new patterns and forms.

School people—and the people of American communities—must think thru the issues, values, and details involved in the extension of educational opportunity. Perspective must be achieved. To aid in this process, the present yearbook was undertaken. Extensive use is made of descriptions of new educational opportunities now found in schools and communities as a basis for interpreting current developments. The committee has sought to clarify issues and to provide an improved basis for local decision and action.

PREWAR CURRICULUM PLANNING

The true nature of the extensions of opportunity, which are the concern of this yearbook, can best be seen if viewed in contrast with the predominant prewar curriculum activity. Certainly the period prior to the second World War will be recognized for the intensity and widespread popularity of curriculum revision by schools and colleges. Almost every institution had its curriculum committee if not its curriculum program or, proudly mentioned, "new curriculum." Faculty groups, some enthusiastically and others unwillingly, spent long hours in a studied restatement of the purposes of education, in an analysis of basic social conditions calling for new content in the program, in a community survey to determine educational needs, in a study of psychology and its recommendations for the guidance of learning, or in a cataloging of student needs. Some went so far as to define a new scope for the program, establish a sequence of centers of interest, and prepare sample units of work. The pattern is too well known to need further elaboration.

Occasionally the educational process, or the needs of boys and girls, was stressed, but usually the major concern was course of study preparation. Frequently, effort centered on the reorganization of a single course or subject area, and in a few instances the educational activities were viewed as a whole and planning included the total offering of the school. In some cases, unfortunately, the real curriculum, the experience of the learner, was overlooked in the process of large scale planning and course of study preparation. There are numerous illustrations of ambitious starts which never reached the stage of influencing classroom work. The number of curriculum programs which fundamentally and drastically changed the learning opportunities of children, youth, and adults is probably small. But on the whole, much progress was made. Educators were increasingly thoughtful and critical of their efforts. Significant beginnings were made toward a curriculum with sound social and

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psychological rootage. Beginnings have been made in teacher participation in curriculum development.

Numerous professional books and articles were written on the how and why of curriculum improvement. In prewar America no educational topic was more popular. Problems of supervisory leadership, the task of the curriculum director, the responsibility of the school administrator, and the role of the teacher in curriculum modification were discussed again and again. But in almost every case, the focus of attention was the regular classroom learning situation. Reading, spelling, geography, history, English, mathematics, science—these were the principal concern.

Occasionally the attention shifted to general education versus special education. Core courses and programs were debated. The practical as opposed to the theoretical, and the present versus the past and even the future, had a share of attention as emphases in school programs. Personal problems of students as well as the use of community resources and service to the community were discussed. Frequently the relationship of these more nebulous topics and problems to the curriculum remained unclarified. The demand for change in the curriculum was emphatic. The needs which the schools were not meeting were frequently defined and widely recognized. Sometimes the resources of teachers were utilized effectively. Communities here and there thruout the country were attempting to cope with some of the most persistent problems.

UNRECOGNIZED SIGNS OF A NEW CURRICULUM

Thruout the prewar period of curriculum activity, innovations which extended educational opportunities of new age groups and provided new kinds of learning experiences for those already in school, increased in frequency and significance. By some they were regarded as extracurriculum, by others as passing fancies, and by still others as opportunistic educational activities if not merely publicity stunts. In most cases they have been unrecognized in their true light as signs of a changing curriculum. Day care for preschool children, the lengthened school day for elementary and secondary students, adult education, work experience, camping, community service, and teacher participation are but manifestations of a new ferment in education. The yearbook committee views these as extensions of educational opportunities which are significant and promising for the future of American education.

While many of these activities were started long before the second

World War, they increased in number and variety as the war progressed. It was natural that this should be true, for they provide a direct and speedy means for meeting new needs of individuals and communities. Usually no courses of study construction preceded their inauguration. The fact is clear; a problem or need existed and something was done about it. Sometimes the school, but frequently other community agencies, provided the leadership or the pressure which resulted in action. One of the basic issues and problems centers in the school's responsibility for this type of activity.

These extensions of educational opportunity represent a marked shift in the method of curriculum development. From the reorganization of courses and subject areas, emphasis was shifted to working with and for people on meaningful and vital problems, from rigidly formulated courses of study to plans for study developed in classrooms by teachers and pupils. No questions are raised as to the ground which should be covered or the norms on standard tests which should be reached. The practices of neighboring schools are seldom followed. The principal questions relate to the best ways and means of meeting a local need.

This upsetting of customary patterns raises certain serious questions as to the role of teachers, supervisors, and curriculum workers. What is their function? What training do they need?

Truly these extensions of educational opportunity represent a new approach in curriculum development. They do not follow the orderly pattern of mass activity and assigned hours. Instead they disrupt the traditional program. Sometimes they are not even considered as being related to the school curriculum. Often they involve the hours before 9:00 and after 3:00. Saturdays, Sundays, holidays, and the usual summer vacation period may be the time when they flourish. While they may be planned for those in the six- to eighteen-year age range, it is entirely possible that younger as well as older members of the community will be involved. These activities may take place in the school, but it is just as likely that they will not. Thus in more than one sense they represent a new development of the curriculum.

The very newness of these approaches means that the usual principles and practices of curriculum revision do not seem to fit. Experimentation and trial are necessary. There is no reported experience and study by other groups which can be used as a basis for further planning. Real pioneering effort is necessary.

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OPERATION OF THE YEARBOOK COMMITTEE

A recognition of conditions such as those just described led to the selection of "Extended Educational Opportunity" as a problem for study by the new Department of Supervision and Curriculum Development. In May 1943 a group consisting of Ruth Cunningham of the Department of Supervision and Curriculum Development, Bess Goodykoontz of the United States Office of Education, and Paul R. Hanna of Stanford University met with the co-chairmen, Gordon N. Mackenzie and J. Cecil Parker, to prepare the 1944 yearbook plans. At this gathering the basic plan of organization was established.

Letters were sent immediately to schools known to have programs of the type already described. The response was immediate and generous. In a very real sense it is this group of pioneering educators thruout the country that is responsible for the yearbook. Those whose reports could be included have been noted in each chapter. Unfortunately not all descriptions of activities which were received could be included. However, those who submitted such materials contributed to the thinking of various authors. They are listed in the acknowledgments at the end of the volume and should be consulted by all who want additional illustrations of the extension of educational opportunity.

In presenting these descriptions of school practices, the authors do not wish to have them regarded as patterns. Each grows out of a particular school and community situation and is intended to meet local demands. These descriptions are useful when viewed as illustrations of ways in which a great variety of needs is being met.

On the basis of materials received, the chairmen prepared a discussion guide, "Extending Educational Opportunity for Children, Youth and Adults."¹ This was used at the summer conference of the Department at the University of Wisconsin.

The authors for the individual chapters were selected early in the summer, and were furnished with illustrative materials collected from schools in every section of America. While it was not possible for the committee to meet as a group, correspondence and meetings of individuals with one or the other of the chairmen permitted considerable discussion. As the chairmen met and worked in Washington, Ruth Cunningham, the executive secretary of the Department, was con-

¹ Mimeographed, 23 p. Available thru the Department of Supervision and Curriculum Development, National Education Association, Washington, D. C.

sistently helpful in the clarification of points of view and in the criticism of the manuscript as it progressed.

The importance of the sociological and psychological issues and problems underlying the extension of educational opportunity was recognized in the early stages of planning. Two specialists were therefore invited to review the manuscripts and give their reactions as students of their respective fields. Stephen M. Corey of the University of Chicago made the psychological interpretations, and Lloyd Allen Cook of Ohio State University added the sociological comments. Thus, in many ways this volume is a result of the co-operative efforts of a large group of educators.

THE PLAN OF THE YEARBOOK

Almost any organization which might be devised for a volume such as this would be certain to involve overlapping. The activities described were not planned in terms of any preconceived pattern or subject arrangement. The needs being met by one activity frequently are similar if not identical to those being served by another. Yet there are certain reasonably distinct groupings which emphasize some of the principal elements of extended educational service.

In close relation to the regular school activities, a whole series of new experiences is being provided in many schools. They are numerous and varied. Yet a large proportion centers around problems of helping boys and girls live more effectively in the modern world. Alice Miel, who has been so successful in working with boys and girls, has prepared an introductory chapter for the first section of the yearbook. She has not only stated the problem in clear and emphatic terms, but has also given numerous indications of how schools are meeting the challenge. Several of the areas of greatest activity have then been discussed in detail with numerous illustrations: Paul B. Jacobson, work experience; Maurice E. Troyer, community service; William Young, personal living.

One of the most engaging phases of the problem is found in the way in which new groups of individuals are being reached. Frances Martin, who described the program for preschool children, traveled the country as a representative of the Defense Health and Welfare Program of extended school services for children of working mothers. This work was jointly sponsored by the United States Office of Education and the Children's Bureau of the Department of Labor. She has written of her direct observation of children engaged in new activities on a wider basis than has previously been

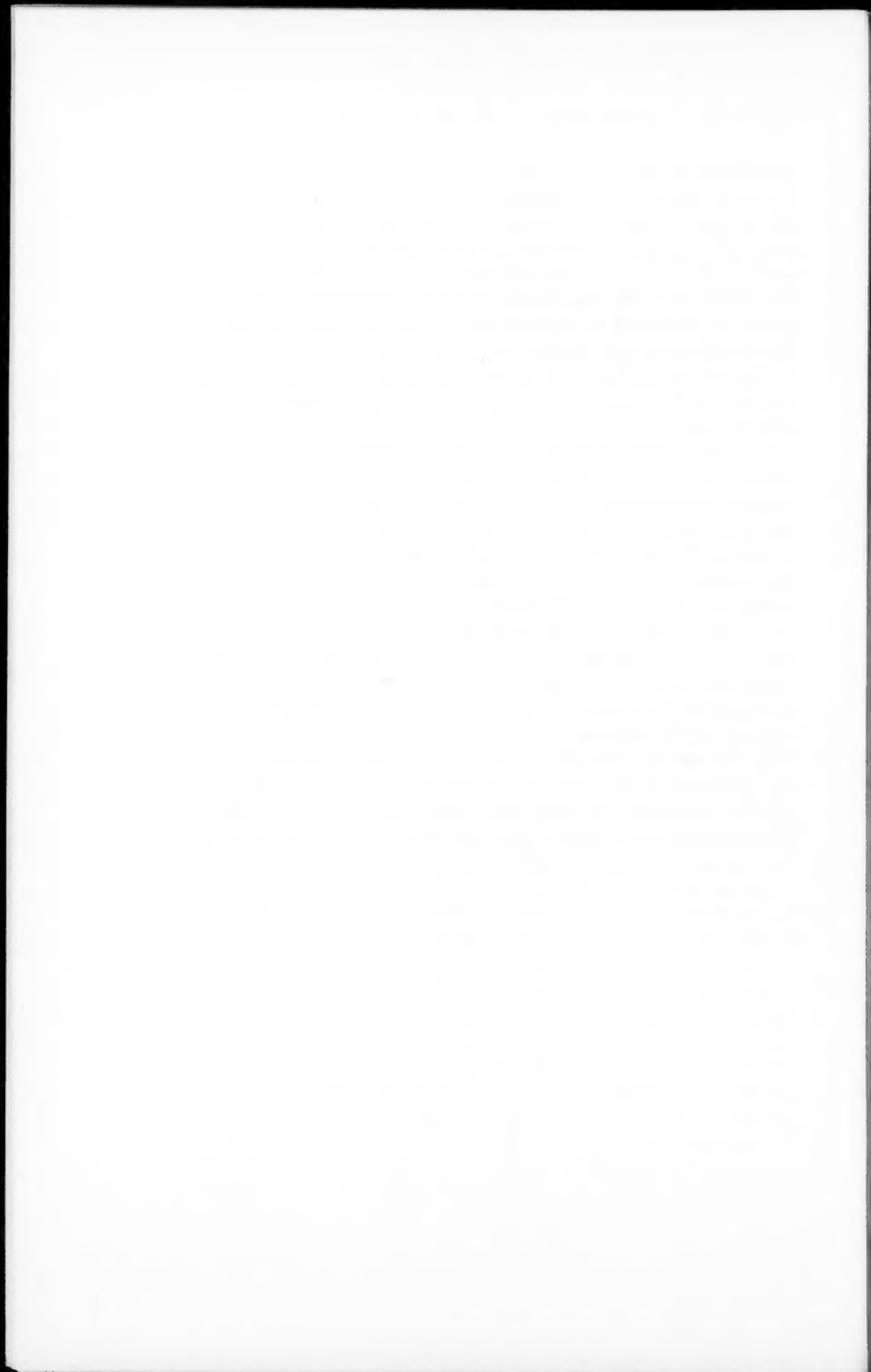
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possible. Paul Sheats, from his varied experience with adult education both before and during the war period, has contrasted programs which vary in age from sixty days to forty-three years. Those ordinarily in school have not been overlooked. Their school day and school year have been extended. Margaret Hampel, who was also associated with the Defense Health and Welfare Program, has drawn together and interpreted fine examples of day care programs for in-school groups. William Van Til, from his long experience with the Youth Hostel Movement, camping, and social education, has prepared a stimulating chapter on summer opportunities for children, youth, and adults.

One very noticeable feature of many programs of extended educational opportunity is the basic importance of community organization and cooperation. Usually the school has not operated alone. Lay groups of various kinds as well as governmental agencies have cooperated. Charles E. Prall has assembled several fine illustrations and has presented them in sufficient detail to reveal the process of community cooperation in increasing educational experiences.

In a final summary section, Stephen M. Corey and Lloyd Allen Cook have commented on the psychological and social aspects, respectively, of these programs, and the chairmen have presented a summary of the major issues and problems attending this kind of curriculum development.

Few, if any, questions have been settled in the twelve chapters of the yearbook. They do reveal a significant area of educational activity. It is hoped that some contribution has been made in evaluating extensions of educational opportunity and stimulating their furtherance on an increasingly sound basis.



Extending Education



to include
New Experiences

PART |

New Kinds of Educational Experiences

LIVING IN THE WORLD OF TODAY
AND TOMORROW REQUIRES FULL
DEVELOPMENT OF:

Cooperative skills in living together and in solving
problems

Capacities for self-government

Facility in meeting and making changes in the
natural and the social order

Extensive community participation and service

Effective work experiences and personal living

Democratic relationships among individuals and
groups of various races, faiths, and creeds

Thruout public education, all approaches and
movements toward a new school and curriculum
must include these areas of experience in extend-
ing educational opportunities.

2

Living in a Modern World

Living in a modern world has been the problem of each generation since Adam and Eve. Helping a growing generation to live wisely and well in its own world of today and tomorrow is the exciting job of anyone with an educational function. However, of late, education for living has become a more engaging, but ever more difficult, task because of the rapid rate of change within our society. The world of today's youth differs in numerous ways from that of their parents. Thus, altho many things needed for living in a former day are still essential, new demands are made on educators and educational institutions.

To the extent that they are valid, parts of the older, more traditional programs will find continued usefulness. There is a difficult and perplexing problem, nevertheless, in defining clearly the new kinds of educational experiences which are appropriate—yes, urgently needed by young people of today. That schools must change to meet new conditions is rather widely and generally accepted. Just how they must change is a subject on which there is much greater disagreement. However, in selecting these needed experiences, most would willingly be guided by the requirements for living happily and usefully in our modern world.

In extending educational opportunity to include new kinds of experiences calculated to foster wholesome living in a modern world, at least two changes appear necessary:

1. The emphasis, method, and content for arriving at traditionally accepted goals must be modified as a result of a clearer understanding of our purpose and increased knowledge as to how education can be most effective. In general, this will result in providing new kinds of experience within the program as we now know it.
2. New goals and consequently entirely new kinds of experiences are needed. Some of these may be provided within the usual daily

schedule. In other cases a rather sharp break with present practice will be necessary. For example, working in the community may definitely upset the daily schedule. In so far as new experiences differ markedly from those now provided, difficulty may be encountered in relating them to the on-going stream of educational activity. To meet new requirements, time allotments will have to be altered in many schools. Certain phases of the program which now are not as important as they once were should receive less emphasis. While it is not possible to outline in detail the changes needed, the kinds of experiences necessary for effective living in the modern world and desirable directions of curriculum change can be shown.

FROM FACING THE PAST TO FACING THE PRESENT AND FUTURE

The first shift in emphasis suggested is a reorientation of the curriculum from almost exclusive concern with the past to a concern with the present and the future. All of us have laughed at the two birds who were flying backward in order to see where they had been. Yet it has seldom seemed humorous or even senseless to have children proceed thru our schools "walking backward into the future." This is not to deny the value the past may have for present problems of living; it is to suggest that the accumulated wisdom of the race has more worth if drawn upon for use by persons oriented in their modern world. A few examples will make this matter more clear.

School Corporations—A Phase of Modern Living

In Winnetka, Illinois, believing that modern corporations offer a challenge to education, the teachers have encouraged the formation of enterprises of each of three types of corporate organization—private, public, and cooperative. One example is the Mutual Insurance Company, which insures students against accidental breakage of dishes dropped from luncheon trays. Another project is the school credit union, incorporated under the laws of the school council to encourage savings, provide small loans, and afford experience in the control of credit. The Conservation Authority, which is developing a nursery, is another school enterprise. Other ventures include a profit company that raises and sells rabbits, mice, and chickens and that also rents pets and cages, sells feed, and gives instruction in the care of pets; a cooperative that manufactures and distributes school supplies and operates an exchange of used articles;

a publicly owned and operated print shop that uses its income to purchase equipment; and an apiary.

School corporations are not the only means used at Winnetka to orient children to their own world. Not long ago, children of one junior high school attended a regular meeting of the village council and participated in the hearing on a new bicycle ordinance that they had drawn up and presented to the council. The same school has in operation a plan for levying and collecting from the students license fees and per capita, sales, and business income taxes. For teachers and pupils to be concerned with such matters as school corporations, school taxation, and bicycle ordinances is bound to take time and attention from something else. The Winnetka faculty apparently is convinced that such experiences have superior educative value.¹

Food, Clothing, Shelter

In other localities, also, people are concerned with helping children face today and tomorrow. That is the whole purpose of the experiment in applied economics being carried on in Florida, Kentucky, and Vermont under the auspices of the three state universities with the assistance of the Alfred P. Sloan Foundation. In rural schools of those states, children are being systematically taught practical ways of improving their own food, clothing, and shelter. Vermont teachers are concentrating on clothing. Kentucky teachers have turned their attention to improving the diet of their children. In Florida shelter has been the chief point of attack in raising standards of living. Each group of teachers has helped in the preparation of special textbooks for the area of their concern. But the children do more than read from these new books, suitable as they are. Chickens from carefully selected eggs are hatched and cared for in one classroom; another group of children are raising vegetables in a vacant lot. In a one-room rural school, older girls make new clothes from old. In another, pupils learn to repair worn shoes they have brought. Other youngsters are helped to make fire-proof chimney blocks to ward off danger of fire from overheated stove pipes. In each case the school is helping children meet urgent needs.

The school of education of Tuskegee Institute has developed a program of rural elementary education designed to take account of the fact that in the South many children complete their education

¹ Material furnished by S. R. Logan, associate superintendent of schools.

before reaching the fifth grade.² The director of the school described the project in these words:

Sewing, homemaking, and the handicraft arts have been made a part of the work of the first five grades in Tuskegee's rural laboratory schools. The results of this type of enrichment have been good. The children have applied their newly acquired skills to the beautification of their classrooms and to the improvement of their homes and themselves. Nutrition is another area that has been explored. Through the preparation of food for the undernourished children in their particular schools, the children in all of the grades have gained meaningful experience and practical skill in cooking and nutrition practices. Along with food preparation, gains were made in the decorum of eating. Agriculture for the very young is also a part of this program. Learnings have been applied in the school yard and the school garden. Soil erosion projects have been carried on; grass and shrubbery have been planted; and new crops have been started on the school grounds.

As is the case in the Florida-Kentucky-Vermont experiments, school leaders at Tuskegee are consciously expanding educational opportunities in the directions of children's most pressing needs.

A View to the Future

The war has prompted many schools to turn some of their curriculum emphasis toward the present and future. Lists of units recently prepared for use by secondary teachers in Denver, Colorado, and by elementary teachers in the state of Iowa illustrate this point. The Denver list includes Rationing, Vocations for Victory, Health Services on the Home Front, The Freedoms We Defend and Seek, Living in an Air Age, The Impact of Science on Present and Future Living, Youth in a Modern World, Minority Cultures, Issues and Goals of the War, and Postwar Reconstruction.³ On the Iowa list are Sharing Our Food for Victory, The Geography of Rationing, Inflation, Nutrition, Our Ally—the United Kingdom, Our Allies in the Far East, Inter-American Relations, The Economics of War, Victory Gardens, The Freedoms, and Understanding Our Enemies.⁴ These proposals for changes in curriculum content indicate how these schools and others like them are beginning to face the future.

² J. Max Bond, director, school of education, Tuskegee Institute, Alabama, prepared the material on which this report is based.

³ Reported by Maurice Ahrens, supervisor of instruction, Denver, Colorado, public schools.

⁴ Reported by H. K. Bennett, supervisor, Iowa Department of Public Instruction.

FROM RACIAL TOLERANCE TO IMPROVED INTERCULTURAL RELATIONS

Orientation of the curriculum to the current scene would have profound effects on the typical school if widely applied. Yet there are other shifts in emphasis that have promise even tho they have a more specific focus. One such shift might be described as a broadening of the old concept of racial tolerance. Once we considered it enough to live and let live, to tolerate in the sense of put up with the man who was so "unfortunate" as to have been born outside our own country or to have inherited a colored skin. Today, the concept is broadening considerably as the following description of intercultural education in the junior high schools of Springfield, Massachusetts, reveals:⁵

For a period of three years a new emphasis has been given to a study of the many nationalities with their divergent cultural patterns which make up the population of Springfield. School populations represent from ten to twenty different nationalities in each school. The objective of this study is to develop an understanding and appreciation of these peoples to the end that we in America might learn to live together as good neighbors, each making efforts to improve the life of all.

The study established a chronological perspective by reviewing all the waves of immigration since the Puritans came. Causes of migration were learned. Immigration laws with their fluctuations took on a new meaning. Cultural patterns of these migrated peoples were more deeply appreciated. The problem of living among a new and strange people who speak an unknown language was better understood. Books whose authors are among our notable foreign born were read.

It would be difficult to describe in a brief space the many creative forms of recording knowledge that this study stimulated. Among them are maps showing population distributions with reference to nationality groupings, graphs, charts, pictographs showing varied kinds of data, murals, and posters. The most picturesque and artistic productions are the historical pageants, tableaux, original dramatizations, and broadcasts of imaginary dialogs, all in native costume.

The musical accomplishments forming a part of the cultural patterns of these peoples were studied. Many glee clubs, music classes, orchestral groups, and physical education classes have rendered excellent interpretations of folk songs and dances.

Many collections of original writings have been illustrated, printed, and bound in book form by the school. "A School Speaks," a book put out by pupils of the Classical Junior High School, deserves mention. It was written, illustrated, edited, printed, and bound

⁵ Prepared by Evelyn Holston, general supervisor of junior high schools, Springfield, Massachusetts.

by the pupils. Every foreign background of the school was included. Each story was translated into the native tongue of the people about whom it was told. Translations into those foreign languages not taught in the school, such as Polish, Czechoslovakian, Dutch, Swedish, Norwegian, Danish, Syrian, and Hebrew, were made by pupils assisted by their parents.

What has been the outcome of this new unit of work? Has the objective of the study been realized? So far as one can discover outcomes from conversations of pupils, their behavior toward schoolmates of widely differing backgrounds, and parental reactions expressed in their own appraisals of the value of such information, the answer must be an affirmative one.

Note the objective of the Springfield study: "That we in America may learn to live together as good neighbors, each making efforts to improve the life of all." Here is an attempt to go beyond mere understanding and appreciation; here is concern for actual improvement in the intergroup relationships. Springfield has taken a long step in the right direction. Further thought along this line may point to a still broader scope for intercultural education. Some will want to include sympathetic handling of racial and cultural relations at the international level.

Heretofore, one approach to the study of other peoples, and that an unsound one, has been overworked in American schools. In the elementary grades there have been units of work on Holland, Switzerland, China, and other countries. In a desire to present dramatic material to children, the "queer" customs of these lands have been highlighted. We have made the inhabitants strange and inexplicable because they are not like ourselves. The secondary schools also have fallen into this error. When properly conceived, the job of intercultural education is twofold. One aspect of it is helping children discover how much like other people we are, what we have in common with them, how similar are our wants and needs. The other is helping children understand why differences in cultures have arisen and helping them to value those differences as a means of enriching the lives of us all.

Intercultural education is more than improving relations with people of other countries and with members of racial and religious minority groups within our country. It also includes mutual understanding and appreciation leading to improved relationships among various groups within our own American-born majority—among rural and urban groups, among people living on either side of the tracks, among people in different occupations, among people living

in different regions in our country, among men and women, among youth and adults, among people of different intellectual levels. To promote such understanding and to improve these relationships is no easy matter. Again there is the double job of helping learners to keep uppermost in their minds and hearts what they have in common with all other human beings at the same time that they are noting and valuing the uniqueness of each individual with whom they deal.

In all this it will be necessary to go beyond mere reading and discussion. In many communities a native from another country can be brought into the classroom to live and work with children. Thus children can be helped to see the human qualities of the people represented. They can come to recognize similarities of interests and to appreciate differences for what they are worth. The bringing of a representative of another national group into the classroom will contribute something to a feeling of neighborliness which could never be obtained from the printed page.

Perhaps the best way to educate for improved intercultural relations is to make sure that underneath the occasional dramatic contacts with persons of other cultures, the units of work, the assembly programs, the festivals, and the murals, all devoted to the intercultural theme, there is a solid basis of good human relations within the classroom. This means an attitude on the part of teachers and pupils toward deviates of all kinds that is not always found in schoolrooms at present. The school that can help its students genuinely to appreciate the worth of other individuals will have contributed greatly to the ease, satisfaction, and usefulness of the lives of those students in a world at peace.

FROM STUDY HABITS TO WORK HABITS

Space permits only brief treatment of other possible shifts in emphasis that should lead to improved educational opportunities for learners in school. A faculty might well consider the implications of a shift in emphasis from what is commonly known as study habits to more broadly generalized good habits of work. In the typical school a student is considered to have good study habits if he can comprehend the teacher's assignment, study the pages assigned in the textbook, emerge with a concise outline of the material in his mind or on paper according to the wishes of the instructor, and make a satisfactory recitation or write a good test on the material to be covered. Possession of good work habits, on the other hand, includes all of the following abilities and habits: seeing a problem

and planning an attack on that problem, in other words, making an assignment to oneself; discovering and utilizing various sources of help in solving a problem, such as other people, the full resources of a library, visual material of many sorts, perhaps some institution or situation in the community; persevering until a solution has been reached, or else showing the good judgment to turn efforts in another direction when such a step seems wisest for all concerned; budgeting time to provide for a personally adequate rhythm of work and rest; recording or expressing in a variety of media ideas gained; applying in appropriate situations the solution reached; evaluating the success of methods of work and of results, and planning further efforts in the light of that evaluation. Even such practices as cleaning up belong in the category of work habits. To provide opportunities in school for the development of such habits of work requires imagination and effort. The Winnetka youngsters who are members of corporations have such opportunities. Each school has to find appropriate solutions of its own.

FROM FOLLOWING DIRECTIONS TO MAKING CHOICES

A school that shifts from an emphasis on habits of studying an assigned lesson to the development of work habits has taken one step in helping students learn to make choices for themselves instead of becoming ever more dependent on the directions of someone else. Making choices regarding employment of time in school is only one aspect of the problem. There is probably no greater service adults can render youth in helping them become increasingly mature, than to give them opportunities to make all sorts of choices on many occasions. Mother and teacher may think they know best but that does not help the child to become able to judge for himself what is best. Unless there is an actual danger situation, the child should be urged to make his own decisions, whether good or poor, in order that he may learn from both successes and failures. Opportunities for choice-making should include, for example, selection of books, toys, clothing, food, recreation, vocation, friends, and even behavior. It may be difficult for the school to discover its proper role here but it is important that it do so. If children in school have no other choice than to sit still, do the task assigned in the way directed, and leave the room only on schedule or with permission, there will be little opportunity to give them an education in choice-making. This is a matter that requires delicate handling and one that will take the combined efforts of a thoughtful faculty and of parents who have become

intelligently cooperative. It may even be that we must provide a school situation in which there is a real choice for children between abusing privileges and using them wisely, between interfering with other children and going about their affairs in a businesslike way, between wasting time and making good use of it.

FROM PLEASING THE TEACHER TO PEER RELATIONSHIPS

In the past the typical school has tried very hard to promote the idea that the teacher is the person to be pleased. The teacher assigns the marks, judges conduct, reports to parents. This adult puts a premium on scholarship, conformity, neatness, and punctuality. Yet the child's real developmental job is to establish himself with his peers, whose standards are very different from those of adults. The school can be of real value to a child if it helps him to make and keep friends. Living in the classroom can be so arranged as to reveal natural groupings, friendships, the status of different individuals, loneliness and needs for companionship. There can be easy communication among different groups in a school in order that children may establish relationships with others older and younger. The school can also help children to accept the boy-girl status naturally. The trend toward making shop and home economics available to both sexes is encouraging. Boys and girls can enjoy rhythms, square dancing, and games together as well as English and history. Chapter 3 considers this kind of extended opportunity in greater detail.

FROM VOTING TO A WIDER RANGE OF DEMOCRATIC PRACTICES

Some time ago the typical school went democratic. Unfortunately, the major evidence of this shift was the introduction of the voting process into the classroom. Children love this procedure in which all can participate on equal terms and so call for a vote on every possible occasion. As a result, some teachers use this technic to excess. A student teacher was heard to ask for a vote to decide which arithmetic answer was correct. But life in a democracy calls for a much wider range of special skills than the mere ability to raise a hand to be counted. Procedures of group thinking are important and complex enough to warrant a great deal of study and practice in real situations such as any school affords. The process of group thinking involves gathering and weighing suggestions and evidence, harmonizing conflicts, providing for proper consideration of minority views, and using voting sparingly and at the proper times. Then there are technics of group action which involve division of labor

and responsibility, proper use of the expert, reporting of progress to the group as a whole, and group evaluation of individual and group accomplishment. In any live school there are innumerable occasions on which democratic cooperation may be practiced with profit.

FROM LEADERS AND FOLLOWERS TO THE LEADERSHIP-SERVICE CONCEPT

An old belief that some are born to be leaders and some to be followers is beginning to be greeted with doubt. While it is apparent that some individuals have more natural leadership ability than others, it cannot be assumed that this natural leadership in the rough is necessarily the kind that is safest for a democracy, or that leadership ability cannot be increased on the part of every member of society. Leadership of the kind needed in a democracy must be cultivated. It presupposes an ability to promote growth in self-confidence, self-direction, and leadership in other members of the group. A prime essential in a democratic citizen is that he encompass within his person both the qualities of leadership which he is ready to exercise when the occasion demands, and the ability to serve under the leadership of others. He must be flexible enough to alternate rapidly the leadership and service roles in certain group situations. For the school this means that every individual should have opportunity to exercise leadership on occasion. To make this possible the curriculum should be so broad that all kinds of talents and abilities are called into use. Also desirable is flexible grouping of children in order that they may take the part of an older or a younger member of a group.

MANY SHIFTS IN EMPHASIS NEEDED

Other examples of shifts in emphasis can receive only brief mention here. A faculty group may wish to study ways of helping children to care for their sorrows and joys and angers in other ways than by repressing all emotion, a solution encouraged by the typical school. Instead of suggesting that young people accept an idea because an authority, the teacher or the book, says it is true, learners should be helped to weigh the words of conflicting authorities. More than that, they should learn the proper use of specialists of many kinds—health, home management, finance, politics, cultural anthropology, family relations, and so on. Again there is the matter of helping young people to find pleasure in various forms of expression—music, the graphic arts, the dance, as well as the written and spoken word. Many feel that this is a requirement for complete and

satisfying living in a technological culture. Broadening the concept of conservation from that of saving our forests to one of conserving both material and human resources is another shift in emphasis that might deserve attention. Such conservation begins at home and school with homely, little everyday articles but includes also conservation of time and energy, preservation of beauty in a world that industrialization would make ugly, and capitalizing upon the unique potentialities of individual persons. Thought might also be given to the problem of finding the incentives that are natural to people instead of resorting to rewards and punishments quite unrelated to the task at hand. Human beings have such strong desires for affection, for prestige in a group, and for new experiences that no unnatural drives need be created. Finally, mention might be made of the fact that children need not be led to accept gloomy, barren, or untidy surroundings as a matter of course where school or home is concerned. They can learn how to make any place in which they are to spend some time more attractive.

Primary attention has been given to those new experiences which merely involve doing differently and better some of the things now being done. The three chapters which follow will give a more complete treatment to major areas of extended educational opportunity. Brief suggestions are made here and in the following chapters that may be worth pursuing or may prompt study in similar directions. The question is often asked, "How shall we find time for all this? Priorities on the time of pupils in school are already well established." One answer is to examine and evaluate all such priorities to determine whether they are making an optimum contribution to modern youth. Another answer is that the shifts in emphasis suggested here often take no extra time; they merely imply a different use of time already being spent. It is imperative that we find some better ways of helping young people solve the problems of a complicated society. We cannot conceive the types of human beings that could be produced were we to make widely available the educational opportunities we now envision as possible. But we do know that we can send youngsters forth with much better equipment for living in the modern world than people before them have had. That is our challenge.

3

Educating for Personal Living

Presumably schools have always been concerned with the quality of the personal living of children. Traditionally, however, they have set a standard to which students were required to conform. The three R's and various subjects were taught and certainly they are important for civilized living, but little if any attention was given to directly helping boys and girls in improving their relationships with one another. In recent years, this situation has been changing rapidly. Teachers have taken time to help individuals in their efforts to get along with one another. The importance of peer relationships to the adolescent has been recognized. Activities have been provided which give youngsters opportunities to live and work with one another, to experiment and try themselves in various social situations involving members of their own and the opposite sex. While social relations are discussed from the kindergarten up, special class instruction is frequently given to high-school students who are preoccupied with successfully working out their social contacts. In this chapter personal relations are defined and a few illustrations given of ways in which schools are extending the opportunities for growth and learning in this area.

FACTORS IN PERSONAL LIVING

Personal living is inseparable from any other type of living. You may have heard the speaker who said, "Pardon the personal experiences, but they're the only kind I've ever had." Personal living is inseparable from the culture. It is limited by economic status, social values, and mores. But personal living is much more than social niceties. Doing one's part, belonging to a group, working with others—all these are involved. Personal living is an integral part of all that an individual does. If it is to be pleasant and satisfying, there must be a reasonable degree of success in other activities such as schooling, family life, employment, and leisure activities.

Sunday evening, August 1, 1943, a riot took place in Harlem. It was relatively minor and brief, but the statistics listed five killed, five hundred injured, five hundred arrested, and an estimated \$5,000,000 in property damage. A teacher stated, "The cost to the city of Sunday night's trouble would pay for all the schools we need";¹ that is, all-day neighborhood schools in the Harlem area. Yet that teacher and the rest of us would readily agree that the Harlem problem cannot be solved only by new schools and new school programs. There are matters of segregation, overcrowding, poverty, Jim Crow in the Army and Navy, attitudes toward nearby Negro army camps, and similar other influences. The most important single factor is perhaps the general discrimination against Negroes in work opportunities.

EDUCATION AS WELL AS CULTURAL CHANGE IS NEEDED

To promote the kind of personal living which is generally desired, our culture must change. Illustrations less unique than the Harlem riot are everywhere available in a world that is absorbed in war. But the culture is changing. Schools can be active participants in this change, hasten it, and improve personal living in innumerable situations where more intelligent human action is all that is needed. There are many difficulties which require primarily more education, more understanding, and a will to work out problems.

In the same culture there are, for example, well-adjusted individuals and neurotics. The former are not limited to those who have large salaries, famous ancestors, attractive and roomy houses, and milk and orange juice. And the latter are not always poor or isolated; they all do not live in squalor or struggle along without meat and vitamins.

Hence it may not be amiss to focus on certain school programs which seek to eliminate failures and to improve the quality of the personal living of children and teachers and other adults. Programs described in other sections of this volume have great contributions to make to personal living; however, there is value in examining direct approaches to this problem.

How can a curriculum be developed out of the personal living of children and parents and receive its justification and fruition in terms of its contribution to more satisfying living?

¹ *PM.* (News story.) August 5, 1943. p. 12.

PERSONAL GROWTH THRU SERVICE

Putnam Valley Central School² has two hundred children, Grades I to IX, representing seventeen different nationality groups. As part of its curriculum from Grade III up, there is opportunity for children of each room to carry on for themselves, and for the school as a whole, some real service. The first undertaking of this character was initiated by a combined group of third and fourth graders, their teacher, the school nurse, and the teacher of home economics. The greatest immediate need of the school was the provision of a hot food dish to supplement the cold lunch brought from home. These eight- and nine-year-olds tackled the problem. A questionnaire poll of the parents showed that they thought fifteen cents a week could be afforded for a hot dish. The school nurse and the home economics teacher were consulted as to cheap, nutritious foods that could be served hot. A food with a milk base was recommended. The children with their teacher experimented with cocoa and milk soup to see whether either or both could be made highly palatable and served for three cents. The experiment entailed precise measurements of food and careful calculation of costs, new and rather difficult problems in arithmetic for children so young, but the children worked enthusiastically. One boy explained, "It's such fun," which in adult language might be, "It's interesting and challenging." It was found that either cocoa or milk soup was satisfactory and could be economically served. First offered to the first four grades, the project was then opened to the whole school. These children continued their interest in providing the school with cheap, nutritious food. When they reached the seventh grade, both the boys and girls asked to take over the job as a part of their home economics course and to operate an enlarged and improved cafeteria to meet requests and needs for full luncheon service, and not merely for a hot drink. Since 1939 this work has been assumed by each seventh-grade class. Each third grade now handles the distribution of mid-morning milk for the children in the first four grades. As fourth graders, they usually continue their interest in food and carry on food sales at P.-T.A. meetings. One fourth grade interested the parents in the need of cots and individual blankets for the rest periods of younger children, and the equipment was provided. The individual blankets represent to a

² This account was furnished by Leila Stott, educational adviser, Putnam Valley Central School, New York.

limited extent a continuing need, which fourth graders, their parents, and teacher supply.

Some of the grade groups elect each year to continue the landscaping of the school grounds, and the children always call in someone from the local nursery. Each of the seventeen nationality groups represented in this rural school is given an opportunity to make its unique contribution in projects such as a Christmas pageant, where the costumes and carols of different lands and peoples are blended in the observance of a common festival, with parents as well as children participating. The contributions of the varying nationality groups which are represented in the school receive attention in history classes.

These activities are primarily important for their contribution to personal living. Any observer is immediately aware of the fine way in which children have come to work with one another. Under wise guidance of teachers it has been possible to develop on the part of most boys and girls unusual respect for all members of the group.

LEARNING THRU STUDY OF YOUNGER CHILDREN

The upper-grade children in a biology course at Skokie School³ work with and help the nursery-school children. As they observe habit formation and training of the three-year-old child, they consider his problems in the light of their own experience. Thus, they learn about themselves. In the biology classes, case studies which have been written by the nursery-school staff are discussed. They deal with such things as temper tantrums, shyness, crying for attention, sex interests, and antisocial behavior. Students work out possible ways in which the situation might be handled best and then check their solutions against action taken by the staff.

The enthusiasm of seventh and eighth graders in their work with little children is remarkable. The interest carries over to the nursery-school children and to situations in their own family and neighborhood. The respect of these twelve-year-old children for people of all ages seems to grow.

This study of younger children appears to be a promising approach in helping students understand themselves and others. Working with younger children, they can be more objective. They immediately recognize certain forms of behavior in themselves as being childish and immature.

³ Information furnished by Ray Logan, associate superintendent, public schools, Winnetka, Illinois.

COURSES IN PERSONAL RELATIONS

The general problem of the improvement of the mental health of children has been a major concern of parents and teachers for some years. They have sought to encourage those school practices which have been found to promote mental health and development.⁴ Whereas some have experimented within the range of accepted school offerings, others have attempted to develop materials independently of present subjects with a view toward later inclusion of the materials within the scope of biology, guidance, home economics, literature, social studies, or other subjects or activities.

Delaware Human Relations Class

The human relations class⁵ is a plan to foster the personality growth of children. Used originally in junior high-school grades, the plan is now being tried out in Grades II thru X in various school centers in Delaware. The purpose is both preventive and therapeutic.

Stories, personal anecdotes, plays, panels, motion pictures, radio recordings, and other means are used as bases for discussion. Children are encouraged to discuss freely the problems presented, to describe the problem, to appraise the solution, to speculate and explain the motivation behind the behavior in the situation as presented, and to indicate similar or parallel instances from their own experiences.

Among the subjects which seventh and eighth graders have considered are:

- The importance of friends
- Personality traits of a "regular fellow"
- Our inner human drives—self-preservation or the desire for security, recognition or the desire for approval, interest in the opposite sex, adventure
- The value of facing frankly personal and social problems—overcoming personal handicaps
- Relationships with younger brothers and sisters
- The necessity for self-discipline—learning to lose gracefully
- Wholesome school relationships—problems of a new pupil in school
- Problems of having older relatives or outsiders living in the family
- First impressions—how we look, talk, and act
- The advantages and disadvantages of being timid and shy

⁴ National Education Association, Department of Supervisors and Directors of Instruction. *Mental Health in the Classroom*. Thirteenth Yearbook. Washington, D. C.: the Department, 1940. 304 p.

⁵ This plan has been developed by the Delaware State Society for Mental Hygiene. Information supplied by Emily E. O'Malley, junior high-school teacher, and others.

How various types of punishment affect us
Personality qualifications for various types of vocations
Emotional problems of children in wartime
Use and abuse of comic books
Emotions and their effects on behavior
The result of continued failure on personality development
Sharing our emotional problems with others.⁶

The human relations class can be viewed as an attempt to enable children to study their own problems. If they are kept on this level, many values may result. It seems highly important that children be helped on individual problems about which they can do something. A feeling of success is most necessary. As has frequently been observed, children and youth are interested chiefly in work, play, sex, family, and ethics. The school curriculum does deal to a limited extent with play, but the others are generally neglected or inadequately considered. The human relations class is built on the theory that personal living can be studied and improved only thru personal experiences. Actual life problems are the lesson materials rather than lectures or textbook readings. All content is placed in a social context to aid pupils to project themselves into the situation and to encourage them to discuss their own and social concerns.

Children and youth have liked the human relations class. They enjoy talking about their own needs and interests. Shyness may be mitigated, if one has something to contribute from his own experiences. Here is one class where the child with unusual experiences may be welcomed regardless of his book learning. A concomitant result has been a growth of interest among the teachers in personality development. Each teacher has an opportunity to find out what her children think, believe, and do about the most meaningful problems of their lives. She sees their total personality developing. Teachers' meetings devoted to a consideration of the data and recordings of human relations classes are fully as helpful and practical as university lectures or courses.

Cedar Rapids Teaches Personal and Social Living

Since 1938-39 the Woodrow Wilson High School of Cedar Rapids, Iowa, has had a course, entitled Personal and Social Living, to care for some of the interests and needs of students in respect to family relations and personal development. It was an elective course for sec-

⁶ Bullis, H. Edmund. "How the Human Relations Class Works." *Understanding the Child* 10: 5-10; October 1941.

ond semester eleventh- and twelfth-grade boys and girls. Over the years, the enrolment has been about equally divided between boys and girls. This school is one of four in a city with a population of 65,000 and is located in a part of the city where the population is largely Czechoslovakian.⁷

The general plan of the course followed the suggestion of Keliher and Bridgman⁸ to "deal with the human relationship problems which young people face in their parental homes and in heterosexual comradeships leading on to friendships, falling in love, engagement, marriage, and the establishment of homes of their own." The course was designed to present experiences pertaining to problems of the individual rather than those of the community, as is usual in the social sciences. For example, when students made a survey of available community recreation in this course, its application was to the question, "How can I, as an individual, utilize these resources to enrich my own life?" The question of how recreation can be used to equip society for meeting its problems was not a major consideration. While the course was taught by a home economics teacher, it was listed in the curriculum as a social science subject.

Determining Student Needs

Several methods were employed in determining the needs of the students which this course might help to meet. First, developmental needs as recognized by authorities in the fields of psychology and education were considered. One of the authorities used was Prescott,⁹ who has developed a threefold classification: physiological, social or status, and ego or integrative. Second, an analysis was made of problems¹⁰ stated by students in the class and which they understood would be utilized as a basis for determining class experiences. It is interesting to note that no problems were listed by students in the area of physiological needs. Third, former high-school students were interviewed to determine the problems which they had in school as well as out of school. Fourth, the personal data sheets of the class members were analyzed and problems were revealed of which the students seemed to be unaware. Available anecdotal records of former students, data secured thru visits to the homes and conferences with parents, and narratives of the home life of adolescents were also examined.

⁷ The statement was prepared by Sara Ann Brown, supervisor of home economics, Cedar Rapids, Iowa.

⁸ Keliher, Alice V., and Bridgman, Ralph P. "Family Relationships in the Secondary Curriculum: A Preliminary Statement." *Parent Education* 4:187-95; April 1938.

⁹ Prescott, D. A. *Emotion and the Educative Process*. Washington, D. C.: American Council on Education, 1938. p. 113.

¹⁰ Brown, Sara Ann. *Effectiveness of a Course in Personal and Social Living in Developing the Ability of High School Seniors to Apply Principles in Personal-Social Relations*. Master's thesis. Ames, Iowa: Iowa State College, 1942.

Objectives of the Course

After studying the data from these different sources, the general objectives for the course in personal and social living were set up to guide the teacher and to indicate the direction of growth desired of the individual student. These were stated as follows:

1. Appreciates that successful family life is the result of conscious effort and intelligent behavior.
2. Formulates generalizations and applies them in the area of personal and family living.
3. Understands the relationship of the individual and his family to the community in which they live.
4. Participates effectively in group discussion.
5. Realizes that desirable character cannot be developed unless people live together, take an interest in one another, maintain their own ideals, and respect the personalities of others.
6. Appreciates that if one has a sound, healthy philosophy of life, tho he sometimes loses his perspective, he will eventually see things in their true proportion.

Varied Learning Experiences Used

In attempting to attain the objectives of the course, various methods were employed. These included some activities carried on outside the class, such as field trips, movies, and observations of behavior of children and adults. Within the classroom informal discussion, reference reading, and movies were used. Work both in and out of the classroom was involved in the surveys made by class members. Not only was conducting the survey a valuable experience, but also the students used the findings as a basis for planning further class experiences. The surveys which were found to be especially helpful were those which had to do with housing as it related to family living and to the out-of-school youth who must for the first time attempt to live within his own earned income; costs of living; recreation; vocational opportunities for the school student and the out-of-school youth, showing not only available opportunities for employment but working conditions and hours, scale of wages, and opportunities for advancement and learning.

Conferences were held with individual students by the instructor. This afforded another means for securing real problems of the adolescent. During these conferences the instructor endeavored to be sensitive to problems of students; respect their desires to keep personal and family problems secret but at the same time provide opportunity for the students to talk objectively and confidentially about themselves. At the suggestion of the students, some of these problems were used as anonymous case studies by the instructor and provided a good source of material for class discussions.

The instructor, various class members, panel groups, and an occasional outside speaker conducted discussions. During these periods problems were raised and defined, reports were made of observations

and of facts secured thru reading relevant to the problem suggested, with inferences drawn from these facts. The students then formulated generalizations which they believed applied to the problem under discussion and to other similar situations. In stating these generalizations students attempted to make them conform to the criteria they had set up—making interpretations rather than listing facts, forming generalizations as working ideas that they could use, and avoiding finality. The following are typical of the generalizations which they stated:

1. Children are often thoughtless about showing appreciation for the things their families do for them.
2. To make normal adjustments as an adult, a child must free himself from his early dependence on his family.
3. The young person needs to realize that there are physical and mental changes which take place during adolescence for which he must make behavior changes and adjustments.
4. The critical, even intolerant, attitude which we take toward one another is based on the rather egoistic assumption that what seems right or desirable for one must be right or desirable for others.
5. It is not necessary for us to spend money in order to have recreation which everyone may enjoy.
6. Jealousy is indicative of insecurity.

As an example of the way in which the experiences were chosen, using the needs as stated by authorities and problems recognized by students, the following is given:

Need as stated by authorities	Need to learn to give up a certain amount of personal freedom in order to adjust to the duties and responsibilities of adult life. Need to learn the difficulty of working out a personal design for living which enables one to meet his own needs and the demands of others in a balanced way.
Problems recog- nized by student	Cost of establishing a home. Should married women work? Marriage for college couples. How much savings before marriage?
Generalization	To establish a happy home one must be realistic about material necessities.
Experiences	Studied the problems of a hypothetical couple who might live in this district. Determined the probable income. Class divided itself into groups to set up surveys to be used to secure information and to report on the following:

1. Type of house or apartment available on this income.
2. Desirability of renting versus owning property.
3. Amount of savings necessary to furnish an apartment or a small house without instalment buying.
4. Cost of stocking a pantry and supply shelves and the cost of well-balanced food for two people for a month assuming that there is no pay check for a month after marriage.
5. Cost of linens, curtains, silver, dishes, and kitchen equipment on a moderate income level.
6. Deposits to be made for such items as telephone, gas, electricity, and water meters.

From items above, students set up a check sheet to be used in interviewing young married people, either members of their family or friends, in order to estimate the minimum and the desirable savings for a young couple to have before marriage.

Revisions were made each semester as experience showed weaknesses in the course, so that it would more adequately meet the needs of the group and of the individual students. Students were allowed wider participation in selection of material offered each time a revision was made.

Evaluation Carefully Planned

A variety of methods for evaluation was employed. Some of the most valuable included (a) having students describe situations, often only one paragraph, to illustrate the application of a particular generalization formulated by the class; (b) writing case studies of their own family life which indicated their ability to apply several generalizations in the area of personal and family living; and (c) taking pencil-and-paper tests. These tests were given before and at the end of the course to determine the ability of the students to select a solution and supporting reasons in problems set up to illustrate the application of generalizations.

PERSONAL LIVING IN A CORE PROGRAM

The Highland Park Junior High School¹¹ has reorganized its curriculum around a core program which grew out of a need for more effective guidance and a school day that would be filled with more meaningful experiences for boys and girls.

The first step was taken in 1937 when groups of pupils were assigned to the same teacher for homeroom, social studies, and English. . . . The homeroom teacher came to know her pupils much

¹¹ Taken from materials submitted by Ross H. Smith, principal, Highland Park Junior High School, Highland Park, Michigan.

better than when she had them for single periods, and knowing them better could serve them better from all points of view.

In September 1940, . . . the first-semester eighth grade was started on a core program that seemed suitable to our needs. This program covered a seven-period day, fifty-five minutes to the period, with the last period optional. Three periods were with the core teacher, one of these being a combined lunch-recreation period. Another period was either physical education, three times a week, or music, two times a week, and the remaining two or three periods were given to workshops. These workshops were organized and conducted to serve individual needs in such areas as composition, arithmetic, art, home economics, industrial arts, science, and typewriting. The special homeroom period was . . . dropped. Guidance was no longer something set apart, but had merged with curriculum and classroom procedures. . . .

The following are excerpts from teachers' reports:

In our core work we have stressed the development of the whole child. A girl with me for the eighth and ninth grades was very shy and timid and apparently unsocial. When she had measles, our class sent her letters. Her return to school showed a new warmth, and others found out about her cooking and sewing abilities. Altho she was never a good student in academic work, it was a delight to see her picture in a paper recently. She had been cited for child-care work in the homemaking laboratory. . . .

There was one girl who came in with the group in the eighth grade who had an uncontrollable temper. She had frequent and fiery outbursts. At first these disturbed and upset the group. As time went on, they ignored her tantrums as the children in a large family group ignore the child who is out of line. The net result was that the tantrums ceased and the girl became a respected and valued member of the group. . . . All members of the group were given an experience in citizenship which improved their habits of living together.

Highland Park Junior High School is now in the fourth year of its core program. Apparently they feel that basic goals are being partly realized. The core program approach has been used by many schools to secure an organization which would aid teachers in getting to know children and work with them intimately.

STUDENTS AND PARENTS DISCUSS THEIR PROBLEMS

It would be a mistake to assume that schools are extending their opportunities for guidance and education in personal living thru one means only—classroom instruction. A group of Wisconsin high-school students and their parents met to consider problems of

family living which an adolescent faces. The topic of discussion for a panel group was, "What we want our homes and schools to do for us." Except that names have been changed, the discussion went as follows:

Chet, a high-school senior, made this comment, "My parents can and do help me by providing a home base, a place where I can go for advice and counsel. It's great to know that someone is back of a fellow and anxious to help him succeed. I get a feeling of strength and security, knowing that my parents are backing me."

Mary then commented, "My parents are always ready to help me, too, as Chet's are, but they want to tell me what to do. They've decided that I'm to be a teacher and that I should go to the University, but I don't want to be a teacher. Also, I want to get away from home. I don't want to go here to the University."

"Gee, you know my folks are like both of yours," chimed in Ted. "My folks help me, but they also want to tell me what to do. They don't seem to know when a fellow's grown-up. My mother says, 'You're getting to be a big fellow now. You shovel the snow off the walk before Dad comes home. He'll be tired when he gets here, and you can help him.' Well, that's all right with me. I'd just as soon shovel the walk, and I do it. But then after dinner when I ask if I can take the car, they say, 'Oh, no! You're too young.' One minute they say I'm grown-up, and the next minute I'm just a little kid. What are you going to do about that?"

"You know," drawled Tom, one of the more mature seniors, "I think all parents are about alike. My mother is always after me. 'Did you eat a good lunch? Do you have your lessons? Have you got your rubbers on?' I've just kinda got used to it. I've got a swell mother, but she just worries about me too much. I used to argue with her, and Dad, too, for that matter, about lots of things. Could I use the car? How late could I stay out? Why did they always have to know who I was going out with? We just didn't get any place. I used to think that if I ever had any kids of my own I'd never treat them that way. But I began to notice that all parents are pretty much like Mother and Dad. And I don't know, but I guess if I had some kids of my own, I might want to know what they're doing, too. Anyway, I decided to change a little. I found out that Mother and Dad were only interested in what I was doing. They didn't mean to be nosy. I quit arguing with them and acted a little grown-up, and they've been swell. They treat me more and more as though I am one of them. They seem to forget once in a while and treat me as though I were just a kid, but if I can only keep my mouth shut and keep from acting like one, we get along swell."

The panel members were serious and intent on their job. Parents listened attentively. A fine spirit pervaded the audience and parents were interested in the frankness of their children. The panel discus-

sion continued with each individual bringing out his own problems and difficulties.

Carol said, "We've got to establish ourselves as responsible grown-ups, but we have been dependent on our parents for such a long time that learning to act like an adult is difficult. Sometimes we act grown-up, and then again it seems pretty good to be able to call on Mother and Dad for help. I hate to admit it, but lots of times when I brag a little and start out boldly, I feel a little shaky inside. In other words, sometimes I feel grown-up, and sometimes I don't. I'm pretty sure that my folks are just as uncertain as Ted said his are. Sometimes they think I'm grown-up, and sometimes they think I'm not. It helped me a lot when I first found this out, because now I understand my parents and know how to handle them. It just takes a little patience."

Harry continued the discussion: "I wish my parents wouldn't do so much talking. If they would only help a fellow rather than give him so many petty lectures."

"I'm all for the talking," sputtered Jack, "I'd rather have guidance any day than a whipping. After all, they've been through the mill. They ought to be able to tell you something."

"Well, that's all right if there isn't too much guidance," responded Mary. "But they shouldn't tell you what clothes to wear, what friends to have, how much money to spend, or how to use your spare time. After all, there are some things we'd like to decide for ourselves."

This discussion took place before an audience of two hundred parents. One father interrupted from the floor with the question, "Where do you feel the need for freedom?" Immediately there were a number of replies from the members of the panel:

"We want to choose our own jobs."

"We want to choose our own school subjects."

"A fellow should be allowed to have his own political beliefs."

"They should let you feel kiddish if you want to."

"Parents should let you give your own point of view."

"They should let you think some things out by yourself rather than always tell you what to do."

The discussion continued with a consideration of similar related problems, and finally the parents added a few comments. All seemed to feel that the discussion had been valuable.¹²

STUDENT CLUB HOUSE CONTRIBUTES TO PERSONAL LIVING

Still other means are being used by schools to contribute to the personal living of boys and girls. Helen Hunt has reported on a club room for junior high-school students.

¹² Ruch, Floyd L.; Mackenzie, Gordon N.; and McClean, Margaret. *People Are Important*. Chicago: Scott, Foresman and Co., p. 202-205. Quoted by permission of the publisher.

The staff at the Claremont Junior High School was interested in securing for the children of the school the social values which children who used the Adolescent Study Club had secured. Since finances prohibited the renting of a building adjacent to the school and the hiring of assistants whose special responsibility was the club, it was decided to request permission of the superintendent to conduct a club in one of the portables available on the school grounds. This permission was granted.

In the fall of 1937 the Claremont Ninth-Grade Club opened in a portable located at the end of one of the rows of portables used as classrooms. The room is a standard portable with one entrance, windows on one side, and air vents on the other. Heat is furnished by a coal stove. The furniture consists of a ping pong table, desk with radio, card table, and an extra table which may be used for chess, cards, or any other desired use. There are about a dozen chairs in the room.

For purposes of an experiment, it was decided to permit ninth graders to use the club. Any ninth grader might sign out of study hall for the club, and it was open to all ninth graders at the noon hour. Each study hall was asked to nominate a club representative and this group met to make plans for the use of the club. Study hall teachers were also called together to discuss faculty plans for the study-club arrangement.

Club representatives at once outlined standards for the conduct of the club. These were:

1. A club membership card should be issued to every ninth grader. This card must be presented to gain admission to the club.
2. Students should conduct themselves in such a way as not to interfere with the pleasure of others.
3. The club representative should admit not more than thirty at a time.
4. The club representative must issue and collect supplies. Normal wear was not charged to users of the club. Pupils abusing equipment must replace it.

Teachers agreed that these standards were acceptable and copies were printed for all study halls and for the club room itself. Teachers especially emphasized the fact that their responsibility toward the students remaining in study hall would preclude constant supervision of the club room. If it were to succeed, students must assume responsibility.

At the end of six months and again at the end of the year an attempt has been made to evaluate the worth of the experiment. This has been done by securing the opinions of study-club teachers, other interested teachers, principal, viceprincipal, and a sampling of students. These various opinions are summarized below.

For certain pupils the club has certainly demonstrated its worth as a spot where informal social opportunities may be had. It has been valuable for certain students to play ping pong, cards, or other games. It has been equally valuable for others to look on and listen to the give-and-take while presuming to read or draw.

All teachers felt that the club filled a great need for the extremely maladjusted child who was unable to make use of study time. Some teachers wondered whether some other form of activity more valuable for such students might not be organized.

All teachers felt that pupils gained in the ability to budget time and to be responsible for self-direction in utilizing time. Pupils had to decide whether to remain in the study hall, go to the library or to the club. Discrimination was shown by pupils, since there were neither parents nor teachers who reported that the club was undermining scholarship.

All teachers felt that the physical lacks of the room limited the social values. When a game of ping pong was in progress, there was no room for a group to dance. Interested couples soon ceased to try, since they were too conspicuous in the tiny space available. Consequently, dancing has never been popular at the club, tho it was most popular in the school and virtually every ninth grader knows how to dance.

The single door was felt to be a drawback. The shy child who is adventuring in social skills cannot step in, casually exit if not well received, and return later. He must enter, sit down, and if unsuccessful in the group, make an embarrassed exit. Moreover, the club room provides no easy approach to its doors. A small yard or space for horseshoes, bars, or some other device, would permit observation and learning before actually joining the more social group. The Claremont Club Room tended to discourage some children who were much in need of additional social opportunities. It has also not been possible to use the room for night parties due to lack of size and other facilities.¹³

The particular or specific methods by which schools should provide opportunities for improving the quality of personal living will of necessity vary with the community and the needs of a particular group of students. Many schools could provide supervised programs similar to that of the Claremont Junior High School. One large metropolitan high school recently converted its large study room

¹³ Meek, Lois Hayden, and others. *Personal-Social Development of Boys and Girls*. New York: Progressive Education Association, 1940. Appendix B. Hunt, Helen, "A Club Room in a Portable."

into a social hall and considered that its use for social dancing and a great variety of social events represented a very wise use of building space.

PROGRAMS IN HIGHER INSTITUTIONS

Colleges, universities, and other teacher-educating institutions have lagged somewhat behind the public schools in the development of programs for personality development. There have been several reasons. The colleges have traditionally been concerned with subject-matter: first with the classics, mathematics, and philosophy, and later, the last seventy-five years or so, with the sciences as well. As the importance of personal living was realized, the responsibility for social development was left to the students who developed fraternities and other clubs, and extracurriculum activities. The administration and faculty have exercised some responsibility in the matter by limiting the admission of "undesirable" students such as those of certain racial, religious, social, or nationality backgrounds. Furthermore, as the various professional and vocational schools have been expanded, courses in the ethics of the occupation and the personality of the practitioner have been developed. These courses have been restricted, however, in purpose and content to what might be termed professional etiquette. They have not embraced the social and emotional development of persons as such. Only recently has this enlarged conception emerged, as a result of which, articles in trade and professional journals have begun to appear with such captions as "Teachers Are Persons," and "The Doctor and His Community." An increasing number of institutions are beginning to recognize the educational potentialities in dormitories, dining halls, and social activities.

VASSAR EUTHENICS INSTITUTE

One of the most thoroughgoing attempts toward the improvement of personal, family, and community relationships has been the Summer Institute of Euthenics at Vassar College¹⁴ which, after operating as such for sixteen years, became in 1942 the Vassar Summer Institute for Family and Child Care Services in Wartime. The institute is a training and demonstration center where parents, teachers, social workers, public health nurses, and other professional workers study ways of meeting the problems which continued war is bringing to all families, all communities, and all professional groups. The work

¹⁴ Adapted from reports by Mrs. Mary S. Fisher, director, Vassar Summer Institute.

has generally covered a period of six weeks. The organization has been in the form of seminars or workshops on the following: community organization, child care, out-of-school programs, personality development, and preparation for service in China. This last group was for Chinese students now in the United States.

A twenty-four-hour school for children two to twelve years of age whose parents or relatives are enrolled in the institute is an integral part of the program. The children live in their own residence house with their teachers and trained nurses. Parents spend one scheduled hour each day with their children but are always welcome in the children's school. Each age group has its own play and work space and develops its own daily program. Building, making, discovering, and creating are balanced by rest or sleep and periods of quiet play. Music, rhythms, swimming, and trips away from the campus are also part of the children's day.

The problems of family and community living, for sixteen years the subject of study in the institute, inevitably took on new significance in 1942, the first summer after Pearl Harbor. The basic understandings and attitudes which the institute had developed in child guidance, nutrition, family relationships, personality development, and the conservation of family resources had a vital significance to civilian living in wartime. The entire program of the institute is now based on the conviction that if democratic personalities are to thrive during and after the war, they must be consciously developed in families, communities, and nations.

All registrants in the war institute are enrolled in some course, seminar, or study group dealing with personality development. The field of inquiry has commonly included the physical basis of the emotions and an analysis of the process by which characteristic ways of feeling and behaving are built into each individual in early childhood. The basic importance of early training or socialization by confident, competent, sympathetic, and affectionate parents has been stressed. Our culture with its conflicting drives and values has been surveyed in its relation to the process of emotional growth within the individual and group. The normal process and problems of personality development are referred by the students themselves to their own childhood experiences as well as immediately exemplified by active and varied child life in the children's school. Many significant data are contributed by the adult students anonymously in writing.

The children's school for many summers has been concerned with the normal problems of individual American families. Twenty-four-

hour schedules have been evolved which could be adapted to groups, yet be appropriate to the individual and developmental needs of children, and which could help maintain the values of family life and relationships. One of the most important opportunities this twenty-four-hour program offered teachers and social workers, who know children only in classrooms or clinics, was that of participation in dormitory routines. Many parents saw their children for the first time as people, separate and independent from themselves. Some found it difficult to believe that children could use freedom so well, take responsibility for others, and thoroly enjoy simple materials and activities.

Children should not be spoiled by parents and grandparents. Children should not be institutionalized or made overdependent by schools and other social agencies. We should not treat them all just alike. These dangers as well as that of neglect are present especially in a war period.

There are children today who have not seen their fathers, who have been in the armed forces, for two years or more. There are other children who are separated from both parents because of war exigencies. Such children in common with others have been present at the children's school. These children have talked, played, and drawn pictures about the war. They are not afraid. They are not emotionally upset.

Much of the strength of the Vassar program is dependent on the intellectual integrity and basic good sense of the staff of the institute. The weaknesses of the program are centered in the high tuition and living costs which bar the advantages of the institute to many families. There are scholarships available for a few. The basic solution to this problem, however, is for our state universities and colleges to develop programs of their own to help parents and children in achieving democratic personalities and homes and to provide demonstration centers of around-the-clock living for teachers and clinicians to observe. Personal living cannot be bounded by 9:00 A.M. and 3:30 P.M. It cannot be limited to certain days, certain weeks, and certain years.

SUMMARY

It should be remarked once again, and as emphatically as is possible, that the most efficient and appropriate ways to enhance the personal living of children and adults are to make sure that (a) they have good and vigorous health; (b) they have work which registers

accomplishment and receives recognition; (c) they have opportunities for play individually and in groups; and (d) they have friendships and love. Therefore, it should be recognized that those aspects of the school program known as health teaching, work experience, physical education and recreation, dramatics and discussion, athletics and games, clubs and associations, and the whole emotional tone of the school as developed by administrators, teachers, children, and parents are probably more important in terms of mental health and personality development than any course primarily directed at personal living. Such courses may be of real value in interpreting wholesome life experiences thus increasing their value, but a course is no substitute for living, working, and playing with others.

Likewise, it should be noted that child-care centers and extended school programs which guide children in all phases of living over a whole day from breakfast thru supper are much more likely to contribute positively and appreciably to the improvement of personal living than so-called regular school programs limited to a morning session of three hours and an afternoon meeting of two or two and a half hours. This is especially true in that most schools provide very limited opportunities for children to work and play together on a basis such that personal development is possible.

Hence the intimate relationship to personal living of such movements as the preschool, the kindergarten, the junior college, adult education, parent groups, the summer and all-year camps, community recreational centers, and extended school programs can be seen easily. This entire yearbook, which relates to the extension of such educational opportunity, is concerned directly and helpfully with the theme of this particular chapter.

4

Educating thru Community Service

The well-recognized national trend toward regionalism and local group consciousness has been accompanied by a reaching out between school and community. The school program has revealed these influences in various ways. In some situations there has been a noticeable increase in the attention given local institutions and problems. The incidence of disease, poverty and crime, local mores, the formation of public opinion, and similar matters are studied. Sometimes this is done in a rather detached manner, while at others it is supplemented by firsthand observation of conditions. Many schools have gone beyond this level of operation and have made wide use of community resources. Trips and excursions are made whenever such might prove of value to the subject being studied. Museums, art collections, power plants, water systems, eroded fields, concerts, business establishments, factories, or farms are visited. Citizens with a special understanding of some particular problem are brought in to contribute to a class group.

Schools have also opened their doors to all members of the community. Recreational activities, forums, vocational training, and help on a great variety of problems have been provided. Schools thru their faculty groups have cooperated with numerous community agencies for the improvement of living conditions or the working out of local problems.

Still other approaches have been used in developing an understanding of the community and in serving the community. Sometimes in addition to all the procedures listed above, and other times quite independently, schools have provided for student participation in community activities. Both elementary- and secondary-school boys and girls have been given direct experience in serving their community. In the belief that superior outcomes would result from living and working with the dynamics of actual situations, a great variety of provisions has been made. If a functional program of education

is desired, one which results in social action, no method could be more promising than one which has boys and girls at work on actual problems.

All of these methods of developing social understanding or rendering service to the community can be regarded as extensions of educational opportunities. However, for purposes of this volume only one has been selected: the educational experiences which are provided thru participation in community service activities.

POTENTIALITIES OF THE RURAL SCHOOL

Sally and Jimmy were absent from school—ill with typhoid. And the school children were asking, "What causes typhoid?" "What caused typhoid at the Smith home?" "How much typhoid do we have in our community?" For answers to the first question the pupils went to the library; for the second to Mr. Smith's farm; and for the third they made a community survey. Following the visit to the farm, they recommended that Mr. Smith screen his windows and doors, cut and burn the weeds around his house, move his hog pen farther from the house, remove the manure piles, keep his garbage covered, and use a fly trap that they made for him.

The survey took the children to every home in the community. The data were summarized and reported to adults at a specially planned community meeting. Students presented their report and recommendations by means of charts and demonstrations.

This learning experience and community service was only one of many such activities carried on by the forty pupils in a one-room country school over a four-year period. In the meantime, two similar schools with a total of sixty pupils served as controls against which to check outcomes.

What were the outcomes? Standardized tests in reading, handwriting, arithmetic, composition, spelling, history, and geography were given to the students in the experimental school and to the forty students from the control schools who were most like them in age, grade level, years spent in the schools, and level of intelligence. At the end of four years the median scores for the control group were consistently and in most instances markedly below the national norms at all grade levels. The experimental medians were above the national norms for all except the seventh grade. But this by no means indicates all the values of the program. Altho children of the control and experimental schools were almost the same in many ways at the beginning of the experiment, participation in community

services caused many differences. After four years, comparisons showed that the experimental school attracted a greater percent of the children in its district; and they attended more regularly, promptly, and continuously. A greater proportion of them graduated from eighth grade and went on to high school. They read more books, newspapers, and magazines, studied more music, participated in more community programs, were active in more out-of-school clubs, practiced better health habits, and had fewer of the common children's diseases, and saved more money from earnings during summer vacation.

Students, however, were not the only ones affected. Parents in the control and experimental communities were also much alike in many respects at the beginning of the experiment but differed markedly in attitudes and conduct four years later. For example, more parents in the experimental groups visited the school and used the school's library, laboratories, and teachers in solving home and farm problems. More attended annual school meetings and favored consolidation. Fewer violated the compulsory school attendance law. More of them read books, bulletins, farm journals, magazines, and newspapers. More tested seed corn, cows, and chickens and changed to thorobred stock. More were active in community activities. Fewer contracted contagious diseases.

Altho it has been more than twenty years since the Smith children had typhoid, this study, reported by Collings¹ in 1923, demonstrated much that we know today about values of participation in community services as a part of the school's program. There was student purpose and planning on real problems. There were opportunities for leaders to develop and a variety of supporting work for others to do. Activities were concrete enough to interest those of lesser abilities, and were complex enough to challenge the more gifted. The work of these boys and girls was a real service to their community. Parents and students alike believed in it. Lastly, it still stands as one of the most broadly evaluated community service programs.

This is not to say that schools today are not rendering worthwhile community services. On the contrary, many schools in the last decade have given serious attention to this opportunity and responsibility. And the war has speeded up the effort in ways that reveal many highly useful educational implications that are not likely to be forgotten when the present emergencies have passed.

¹ Collings, E. *An Experiment With A Project Curriculum*. New York: Macmillan Co., 1923. 346 p.

SOME CURRENT EXAMPLES OF COMMUNITY SERVICES

Late in the summer of 1941, Marion County, Oregon, was faced with an acute labor shortage in its harvest fields.² The employment office found it necessary to hire children and adults to go into the fields and help in the seasonal harvests. Newspapers, radio, and sound cars were used to make the public conscious of the dire situation in which the growers found themselves. Business employees, freed for a day at a time, went into field and orchard.

Thruout the depression years, many children had been denied the right to work. Some of the educators in Marion County felt that in this denial children had been deprived of a chance to develop work habits essential to worthwhile citizenship. In the fall of 1941 came emergency calls for the help of youth. The educators met to discuss the situation and they found that the problem rightly involved the employment office, farm leaders, packers, and the schools. After some preliminary discussion with the state commissioner of labor and the employment office, packers met with the county agricultural agent, the county-school superintendent, city-school administrators, and the local employment official. At this meeting school representatives suggested a social studies program for Grades V thru XII that would emphasize the value of their seasonal crops, problems of harvesting them, the dignity of labor, and the appropriate ways in which the school could help during the labor shortage.

The idea was so enthusiastically received that a committee from the county and city schools was appointed to work out the course of study. The curriculum director for the Salem schools headed the committee. The county agent supplied vital information about the jobs to be done. Teachers were requested to give whatever emphasis they could within their usual program. Some teachers grasped the significance of the program extremely well and did an excellent job preparing students for work. Others found it difficult.

While teachers were working out their plans during the year, a sixth-grade teacher came forth with the idea that students should be organized into units that would work in the fields after the close of the school year. She had discovered that many children were unable to go into the fields because their parents objected to have them thrown unsupervised into close association with transient labor.

At the next meeting with representatives of the canneries and labor agencies, the teachers proposed a platoon system. The idea was not

² Reported by Walter E. Snyder, director of curriculum, Salem, Oregon, public schools.

enthusiastically received by a few of the growers, but others saw great promise in such organizations. Some believed that the extra cost of a supervisor and of transportation would be prohibitive. Others saw the extent to which the labor supply could be augmented, the assurance of needed help in season, and the development of a supply of labor for the future. Eventually twelve platoons were organized and made available to the growers for seasonal crops. When school was out, one unit went into the fields to pick strawberries. Several units picked cherries. Only three units participated before the beginning of the bean season. At that time nine additional units went to work and more units were demanded. However, lack of leaders and lack of opportunity to organize ahead of time prevented any additional units being formed.

All children in the platoons lived at home. They were transported to and from the fields by school buses. The cost of transportation was paid by the grower. Platoon leaders gave attention to sanitary conditions—water and toilet facilities and like accommodations. They provided special rest periods for younger children and general rest in very hot weather. Platoon leaders emphasized good work habits both as to use of time and treatment of crops.

Very interesting is the summary of the achievements during the summer. For example, one platoon of over thirty youngsters picked approximately \$36,000 worth of beans and earned \$1700 in sixteen days. Nine hundred students of a junior high school earned over \$59,000 during the season. The summary for the whole school system shows that 1897 children worked in the berry fields in the spring; 991 worked more than ten days; for 739 it was their first experience in the berry fields. During the fall harvest, 2493 children worked in the fields. Of these, 1640 worked for more than ten days, 794 worked for the first time in the fields. In addition, 623 high-school students worked in the canneries, making a total of over 3000 children participating in the seasonal crop program in 1942. Approximately 90 percent of the student body from the sixth thru the twelfth grades actively engaged in harvesting seasonal crops in one way or another. And it was the first responsible harvesting or canning experience for approximately 40 percent of the children. In addition to organized group work, 360 students from the high school were employed independently in stores, service stations, and elsewhere. Hence the work was a broadening experience for many.

Observation of children in platoons and out of platoons points to the conclusion that the earning capacity of supervised children was

almost double that of the unsupervised. A survey of the schools indicates that 659 children would like to have the opportunity of working in platoons next year. And many growers have already requested platoons under the same leadership. The groups in all instances were led by teachers from the local school system. The interest of students and the quality of their work in the harvesting of seasonal crops was enhanced materially. Children's earning power was augmented and many were thrifty in handling their earnings.

Naturally this experience revealed several ways in which the program could be improved. Since the senior high-school students are old enough for cannery work and are demanded for that service, the work of the unit for the senior year should point more definitely toward the canneries. Greater harmony and better success was obtained when the relationship between the platoon leaders and the farmer was direct instead of thru the packing companies. The number of platoons should be limited to the number of able leaders available. Where possible, platoons should be sent to fields for regular rather than pinch-hit employment. Children, waiting for a platoon to be called, found ways to get into other fields on their own. By so doing, they were able to work a greater number of days but on the whole did not work as effectively nor under as wholesome conditions. Furthermore, these irregularities made it extremely difficult for a platoon leader to keep a group organized and ready for the time when help should be demanded. On the other hand, one platoon organized and started work on the Monday after school was out and worked almost continuously thruout the season. They worked in strawberries, cherries, parsnips, onions, and beans. With cooperation from the employment office and from growers, a school thru such a plan can make a real contribution to the war needs, to students' education, and to their earning power. The program was called "Food for Victory."

Before leaving this report, several questions pertinent to the past and future values of this kind of project might well be raised.

Teachers were requested to give whatever emphasis they could within the normal program. If this program was important to the children and to the community, why was it added to "education as usual"?

Many will wonder how the \$59,000 earned by the junior high-school students was spent. Did it lead to vital discussion and study of such problems as use of earnings, buying war bonds and stamps, inflation, savings, investments, industrial insurance?

What insight was gained by students concerning the nature and conditions of labor and the problems of management? Did it lead to vital interests in problems of seasonal occupation, transient labor?

High-School Boys Harvest Sugar Beets

Sugar beets were pulled, topped, and piled ready for hauling at a rate of over two hundred tons per day by Mt. Pleasant high-school boys in a student work project last fall.³ A total of 1772.86 tons were harvested which otherwise would have been left in the ground to spoil. This amount of beets, after processing, resulted in a saving of 489,309 pounds of sugar.

The superintendent and schoolboard members met with representatives of the sugar beet growers' association, the sugar company, and the county agricultural agent to work out an agreement pertaining to working conditions, compensation, insurance, and transportation. The sugar company provided compensation insurance for boys working in the field, while the growers' association provided insured transportation to and from the fields. The boys were paid on a tonnage basis. The total field labor allowance was divided on a man-hour basis and each boy was paid for the number of hours he put in on a particular field. A total of \$1936.43 was earned for the work. The fields which were harvested produced an average of 8.43 tons per acre.

The project lasted two weeks; 196 boys participated. Each group of twenty-five boys was supervised by a male faculty member. Each boy was required to have an age certificate on file at the school. Those who were physically unable, did not wish to take part, or were under fourteen years of age were given regular classes. Those who harvested beets were not asked to make up school work. The buses left the school at 8:45 and returned at 3:30. One-half hour was taken at noon, and each boy carried his own lunch. Altho participation in this project was entirely voluntary, almost 100 percent of the boys responded to the emergency.

Instruction was given by field workers in the proper method of pulling and piling the beets, as well as cutting off the tops with beet knives. Rural and city boys worked together in the project. The city boys, many having had no farm experience, soon adapted themselves to the new situation and worked on an equal basis with the others. Only two minor injuries were reported to the school, and the boys

³ From a special report prepared by Douglas M. Selby, war training director, Mt. Pleasant, Michigan, public schools.

were treated by local physicians. This treatment was covered by the insurance. A first-aid kit for each group was provided by the sugar company.

During this work period, special instructional units in first aid, home care of the sick, and air-raid control were taught by volunteers in the community to the girls and to those boys who did not participate in the field work.

Some exceedingly important outcomes are directly evident. Tons of sugar beets were saved for the nation's sugar supply. Administrators, teachers, students, and businessmen were brought into a close cooperative working relationship. Plans were made for the safety of the students and for protection against liabilities. Students, especially city boys, learned about harvesting beets. All learned something about a type of group labor.

It might be helpful to raise questions about certain other values that are potentialities of this project. For in receiving praise for saving the beet crop, important educational values may be overlooked; values that might well justify continuation of community work when there is no labor shortage.

Did experience and community services have a maturing effect on some of the boys? Did they return to school with real questions about wages, insurance, employer-employee relationships? Did questions about saving, buying bonds, tax deductions, spending, inflation arise? Did the work lead to thoughtful study, discussion, and conclusion?

Did faculty members gain some new ideas about the function of education in a community? About teaching? Did they see some of their students in a new light as they traveled, lunched, and worked with them? Did they gain some further understanding of these boys that would be useful in motivating, guiding, and teaching them?

COMMUNITY SERVICES OF SCHOOLS IN CONGESTED AREAS

Schools in some of the currently congested areas of Virginia have responded in numerous ways to the opportunities and responsibilities for community services.⁴

Nutrition Problems in Radford

A city nutrition committee, headed by the homemaking teacher, interviewed 21,012 Radford families to find out what kinds of help

⁴From a special report prepared by Martha Creighton, supervisor of home economics education, Virginia State Board of Education.

they wanted. When the tabulated results were analyzed, families were found to be most concerned about the following problems:

- How to meet the nutrition needs of my family
- How to buy wisely
- How to manage income
- How to secure, plan, and plant a garden
- How to conserve and store foods.

Up to April 1943 the homemaking teachers and their students had done something related to most of these needs. The homemaking teachers had sponsored two public programs for homemakers—one a demonstration on the wise use of cheaper cuts of meat, the other on how to plan meals and marketing for the family for a week.

Students had worked with the Red Cross in the preparation of menus for low income families and had prepared buyers' guides to help homemakers plan well-balanced meals under point rationing. The students also worked in stores to help buyers use their ration books wisely.

Inability of commercial laundries to serve the area adequately has brought new emphasis on methods of home laundry for families that have the facilities. Girls have been prepared by the county health nurse to aid in the home care of the sick. Much useful equipment has been improvised.

The homemaking teachers arranged to give demonstrations and home assistance on gardening, buying, and food conservation during the summer. They will also work with the Office of Civilian Defense in training block leaders to take information to all families.

Services in Other Virginia Centers⁵

Some of the services from other schools are similar to those rendered by the homemaking department of the Radford schools, but naturally some are quite different due to variation in local need.

Teachers and students provided counseling service during the registration for Ration Book 2. Girls and women in homemaking groups planned balanced meals from nonrationed food. Glass jars suitable for canning were collected and distributed to those who could make good use of them. In cooperation with the P.-T.A., jars were purchased, gardens planted, and food canned for the school cafeteria.

⁵ Arlington, Blackstone, Caroline County, Bristol, Gloucester County, Hopewell, Newport News, Norfolk, Petersburg, Richmond. Materials furnished by H. Ruth Henderson, supervisor of elementary education, State Board of Education, Richmond, Virginia.

Girls in homemaking classes made inventories of their clothes and carried out plans for conserving, remodeling, and using to best advantage, the clothing they had on hand. They learned to wash and press woolen skirts, to block woolen sweaters, and to dry clean clothing. Girls and adults were given instruction in the care and repair of household machines and appliances.

Homemaking girls were prepared to help in nursery schools for children of working mothers. Special attention was given to the noon day lunch for children of working mothers.

The agriculture and homemaking teachers cooperated in order to provide opportunity for boys and girls alike to study nutrition and victory gardening.

The rising cost of living, restricted transportation, a congested population, and a large preponderance of men have brought school and community study of family budgets, home recreation, moral standards, and family relationships.

The same questions might well be repeated here that were asked about harvesting by Mt. Pleasant students. Also, another question is worthy of serious consideration.

Is it not probable that a very high order of general education was being achieved thru the experience gained in rendering these services? And, if that is true, why limit the experience to students in the homemaking courses? There is much evidence in the more complete reports that homemaking teachers are using these experiences to vitalize their programs as well as to help the community. But inasmuch as these experiences are general education, they might have been equally valuable as a learning experience for students thruout the schools.

HOME AND COMMUNITY BEAUTIFICATION

Prior to the fall of 1940, the Moultrie High School homemaking and vocational agriculture teachers had included study units on beautification in their courses and had confined activities to the school.⁶ The next year home and community beautification was made a schoolwide program of service to the community.

While certain classes undertook an intensive study of beautification, the greater part of the program was carried out thru the advisory groups. Each student was urged to plant at least one tree on

⁶ From an unpublished report of the Moultrie, Georgia, schools to the Commission on Teacher Education of the American Council on Education.

his home grounds and to take part in planting trees on the campus, hospital grounds, and on vacant lots. The trees were secured by the agriculture students and sold to the students for a small amount. Some of the trees were bought from a nursery, while others were brought from the woods. Some of the types planted were dogwood, oak, willow, yaupon, mimosa, red bud, crab-apple, and pine. A number of fruit trees were planted on the farms of the students.

Those who made a more thoro study of beautification landscaped their home grounds, built rock gardens, planted flower gardens, and made flower stands. The agriculture students landscaped the grounds around two of the school buildings and an orphanage. They planted trees on the hospital grounds, and developed a school nursery.

There can be little doubt that students learned much from these extensive planting experiences. The major values of this project, however, cannot be proved by listing the number of trees and shrubs planted. Eventually it will be important to know how well they grew and what the children learned about planting. With respect to appreciation, attitudes, and interests, it will be valuable to know how artistic the landscaping becomes as the shrubs and trees grow; whether or not the students and community continued their home and community beautification efforts after leaving school; and the extent to which the project has leavened the interests of the families that have no children in school.

SERVING LOCAL WAR AGENCIES

During the 1943 spring semester, eighty students of the Quincy, Illinois, schools worked one day during regular school hours, every other week for the local war price and rationing board.⁷ This meant that eight students were assisting the board every day except Saturday. State Superintendent Nickell of Illinois has pointed out three major purposes of this student volunteer program. (1) It offers students an opportunity to make a real and vital contribution to the community war program. (2) It provides the board with a consistent, dependable corps of trained volunteers. (3) The participants have an experience which is educational.

The service of Quincy students has been duplicated in many communities. It is reported that in seven midwestern states at least 16,000 honor students worked diligently one day every other week to assist local war price and rationing boards.

⁷ Report of Student Volunteer Program for War Price and Rationing Boards, Region 6, Office of Price Administration, Chicago, Illinois.

SCHOOL AND COMMUNITY COOPERATION

The reports thus far have shown how schools have helped communities with problems of harvesting, health, diet, rationing, buying, canning, and home beautification. While social controls have operated in these cooperative ventures, they have not been the focus of attention. Problems of Halloween activities have led to the development of a pattern of community cooperation on questions of social control in Oakland, California, which is presented in some detail in Chapter 10 of the yearbook.⁸ The illustration is worthy of note in this chapter as an instance of student participation in the solution of an important community problem.

For some years, Halloween parties sponsored by schools and other agencies had failed to reach many youth, and they were engaging in undesirable activities. Here was a vital problem. Do young people have a right to destroy property and injure people? Should fun be provided for all, or only for those fortunate enough to attend parties? What kind of program is needed? Can youth help plan and carry out a program attractive to all? Teachers planned and conducted discussions of such questions with the students. Students believed a well-planned, communitywide program of fun would go a long way toward eliminating Halloween vandalism. Their suggestions for such a program were placed before a committee representing students, faculty, adult clubs, the P.-T.A., a group work agency, supervisors of recreation, and the police.

These groups and the students worked out a program for Halloween of interest to all ages. A street parade, dancing, costume and pie eating contests, and prizes and favors for many showed the result of much careful planning and good organization. The streets were filled. Everyone had fun and there was no destructive behavior. Other outcomes of this venture were summarized by Wells as follows:

The experience pointed to the need for a citywide program planned so that in each district there would be neighborhood centered activities designed for each age group. It afforded the opportunity for a neighborhood to organize itself for the study of the needs of its youth and to plan to meet those needs. It encouraged coordination and cooperation instead of competition among local groups. Halloween became the first project and pointed the way to greater community enterprise. One of the most important opportunities in

⁸ From a report prepared by Howard Wells, consultant in individual guidance, Oakland, California, public schools.

such a program is for student participation in solving a real civic problem. The students learned good citizenship by working with adults on a problem that was well within the realm of their experience. Adults, too, discovered that they have much to learn about sound civic planning by co-working with these wide-awake youth. Youth were creative, not destructive, and when given ample opportunity they proved it.

The Youth Council

A recreation youth council has been organized from junior and senior high-school students and faculty advisers. It conducted a survey which showed particular interest in having the school gymnasium opened after school and in the evening for sports, dances, and games. They also wanted the shop open for craft work and the libraries open for leisure reading. The youth dances were the first project. A faculty adviser was provided by the recreation department, but the responsibilities for planning and conducting the dances rested with the students. In the sports program an average of more than one hundred boys have participated regularly in basketball, jujitsu, and tumbling. Other groups were being organized in badminton, boxing, wrestling, and commando tactics. Student representatives on the community interclub council report the work of the youth council at monthly meetings.

Several characteristics of this program as summarized by Wells are deserving of special attention.

1. The responsibility for the control of the program rests with the men, women, and youth living in the area rather than with the city or county officials.
2. The recreation and activity program is planned on an area rather than an agency basis in order that there will be no blind spots for students or families who do not belong.
3. A special effort is made to assist those who have more serious problems. They receive professional attention, have a warm personal friend, and are provided a program adequate to their needs.
4. The youth themselves are being given an opportunity to share in the planning and in the working out of their own destiny.
5. The whole program is not only an experience in community organization but in democracy. It is a step toward the decentralization of responsibility and administration. It provides an organization thru which citizens can more adequately share in the solution of their social problems. Sharing in this sense is basically an educational experience.
6. The men and women who are sharing this experience of participation and cooperation are helping to recreate the spirit of democracy for which our country is now fighting.

EVALUATING COMMUNITY PARTICIPATION

It is clear that the students and adults participating in community services, reported in the preceding pages, have some purposes in common. At the same time, there were local conditions in each school and community that produced variations in purposes and procedures. Consequently, no set of criteria against which to evaluate community services should be accepted as a blueprint. That is not the intention here. On the other hand, these projects are so saturated with educational possibilities that some very important values might easily be overlooked unless there is some over-all framework within which their usefulness may be appraised. Evidence with respect to the following questions might well be kept in mind when planning, administering, and appraising community service projects.

1. Is the service being rendered to the community real? Are the students working on a job that needed to be done, or is it made work?

2. What is the attitude of the students toward the service? Do they see it as making a real contribution to the community? Do they believe in it? Do students see more clearly the place of service in a democratic society? Certain services of an emergency nature might be justifiable without students seeing real value in it, but under these conditions educational values will probably remain at a minimum.

3. Do the students profit from the community service directly? Do they gain better insight into community needs and the work of the world? Do they learn something about social controls—cooperative planning, vested interests, pressure groups, foreman-labor relationships, work insurance, social security, tax deductions, safety measures? Do they learn some useful occupational skills? Is the student's schoolwork vitalized by the community experience—class discussions, the use of the library, educational and vocational guidance?

4. Do teachers gain a wider acquaintance with the students and a broader understanding of their abilities, ambitions, needs?

5. Do teachers gain new and worthwhile ideas about the responsibilities and opportunities of education for youth and adults in the community?

6. Do teachers, students, and community agencies gain a better understanding of each other and learn how to plan and work together?

7. Is the community service of such a nature that it arouses new and continued interests on the part of adults in the improvement

and continuation of their own education and in the education of their children?

8. Is the appraisal of the entire in-school and out-of-school program sufficiently comprehensive that the changing program can keep its perspective?

The data required for adequate answers to these questions will not be available if appraisal is an afterthought. Probable sources of information should be anticipated and appropriate means for gathering it developed as plans for the project take shape.

5

Educating thru Work

There was a time when boys were on their own, beginning at twelve or fourteen years of age. Work was not only plentiful, it was essential for food, clothing, and shelter. The big problem then was child labor. How could immature youngsters be spared the permanently harmful effects of long hours and overstrain? Within a few years, the situation was completely reversed. During the depression, a large portion of American youth grew up without the opportunity to work. Not even home chores were available. Under such social conditions, a chance to work is highly prized.

The potential character training and other general values, as well as occupational orientation and vocational preparation, have made work experience an important aspect of education of American boys and girls. Customarily, the work experience idea has been associated with the secondary level age growth. However, many elementary schools have experimented with work-type activities. Numerous schools, large and small, from one coast to the other are already providing extensive opportunities for work experience as a part of the regular school program. The war and the demand for labor have facilitated this development on both the elementary and secondary levels. The social implications of this innovation, as well as the ways in which work is being used to extend educational opportunity, is one of the important elementary and secondary curriculum changes of our day.

OCCUPATION—A TOTAL LIFE INFLUENCE

The importance of work in the lives of citizens is indicated in the following quotation:

A man's occupation exerts a powerful influence in assigning to him and to his immediate family their place in society, in deciding their place of residence, and in determining the occupational status of their

children when they enter employment.¹ The work a man does to earn his livelihood stamps him with mental and physical traits characteristic of the form and level of his labor, defines his circle of friends and acquaintances, affects the use of his leisure, influences his political affiliations, limits his interests and the attainment of his aspirations, and tends to set the boundaries of his culture. In a word, except for those few persons whose way of life and future are secured and fixed by inheritance of great wealth, occupation is the supreme determinant of human careers.²

SCHOOLS AND WORK

Schoolmen have not put into practice a program which recognizes the importance of work. They have, of course, known that young people would go to work. But work had formerly been so easy to get—opportunities abounded in the home and on the farm—that the school did not need to furnish work experience or, except in a few instances, coordinate that which came to young people with their school experience. Elementary schools actively sought to protect their students from work. A few schools and colleges provided co-operative programs which alternated work and school attendance, and some of the vocational courses, particularly agriculture, did relate the individual farm ventures of boys with their courses in school. However, public schools have been notoriously academic. In many instances, as far as elementary and secondary schools are concerned, vocational education has been mistakenly regarded as being for the slow, the dull, or the student who did not respond enthusiastically to book learning. Few schools have even oriented their students to the world of work.

The provision of work experience is a community or national responsibility in which the school has a share. It can coordinate and in some instances administer the part of the program which is carried on while boys and girls are in school. Learning how to work is one of the developmental tasks young people face in growing up. Work experience, if appropriate to the individual growth level, cannot come too early. The ability to hold a job, or the belief that one can hold a job, which will enable him to pay his way in our economic system is a requisite to sound mental health. And in normal times work experience rather than specific training is a prerequisite in getting a job. Two-thirds of the employers who were questioned recently said that

¹ Davidson, Percy E., and Anderson, H. Dewey. *Occupational Mobility in an American Community*. Stanford University: Stanford University Press, 1937.

² Davidson, Percy E., and Anderson, H. Dewey. *Occupation Trends in the United States*. Stanford University: Stanford University Press, 1940. p. 1.

in normal times some work experience was necessary before a young person could gain initial employment.⁸

With the coming of the war, conditions have been altered. Schoolmen have wondered how young people could be kept in school when full-time jobs were waiting for those who would accept them. The demand for many kinds of community services has given even the elementary-school child abundant work opportunities. The present is a particularly propitious time to coordinate work with the school, to make it part of the school curriculum, and in some instances administer work experience within the school. Unless schoolmen make it possible for young people to work and to remain in school, thousands, especially from the lower economic groups, will quit school and probably never again continue in regular attendance. But this is only a short-time consideration. Programs of work as an integral part of elementary and secondary education can well be started now for continuance in the postwar years, even tho it is difficult if not impossible to predict employment conditions after the war.

WORK EXPERIENCE ON THE SECONDARY LEVEL

Perhaps it is well to differentiate between work and study because both youth and adults refer to study as hard work. Study may prepare one to produce goods or services at a later time. The direct production, by a student, of goods or services which have a readily recognized marketable value is work experience. This experience is often educative, whether or not the young person is paid—and both kinds of work should be the experience of all who pass thru the school. The experience is of maximum benefit when it is coordinated with and made part of the total school experience. Thus a girl who learns how to cook in school is studying. If she uses what she has learned in school in the school cafeteria, she is getting a work experience for which she is usually paid. If she employs her skill as an assistant cook in a small restaurant, she is also receiving work experience which may be direct training for her vocation. Preparing meals at home might be thought of as a work experience. However, something of value is added if the experience of cooking and serving food is obtained in a situation where an employer relationship is also involved.

⁸ Reeves, Floyd W., and Bell, Howard M. *American Youth Faces the Future*. Washington, D. C.: National Association of Secondary-School Principals and the National Council for the Social Studies, departments of the National Education Association, 1942. p. 31.

LEVELS OF WORK EXPERIENCE

Work experiences may operate at a number of levels. There are in every community and school many jobs which need to be done, and which, under proper supervision, provide splendid opportunities for work experience without pay.

The manager of the basketball team, the librarian of the band, the pupil assistants in the library, the editor of the newspaper or year-book, all receive work experiences which are valuable when the sponsors are careful to give a variety of activities instead of exploiting pupils by having them perform exclusively routine tasks such as slipping books. Operating a school bookstore, beautifying buildings and grounds, helping to develop special facilities such as a school museum and numerous comparable activities provide potentially good work experiences. Young people who have given service to the school are its most loyal supporters as they feel they have a stake in the institution. It is only proper that all students should have an opportunity to give service to the school in recognition of the privileges which they have enjoyed.

Opportunities to gain work experience exist, too, in service supplementary to that of the school custodians—assistance in the laboratories and the like. In some schools such service has been well and extensively organized. The good results to the student and the school under the NYA student work program have been such that many thoughtful school administrators are wondering how the service, built up during the past eight years, can be furnished since the NYA has been discontinued.

A third level of work experience is to be found in unpaid service to the community and public institutions. In these situations there is almost no limit to the amount of work which needs to be done. Community beautification and services to parks, hospitals, and welfare agencies can engage innumerable young people. In rural communities milk, soil and seed testing, as well as various health and experimental activities, should have attention. The programs involving experiences of this type have been widely publicized.

There is a fourth level of work experience for which there is remuneration. It is important that all young people should work for pay. Some of this may be in the school or in public places. But if all young people are to have work experience, many must receive it from private employers. Here it is that the school has particularly difficult problems in coordinating the work with the school program.

Coordination and supervision by the school is nevertheless very important.

TIMELINESS OF STARTING PROGRAMS NOW

With employers actively seeking young people, the war emergency is the most opportune time in the past quarter of a century—perhaps even in the next quarter of a century—to articulate work experience so closely with the school that it will remain after the emergency. In so doing, assistance will be given in helping solve the present manpower shortage in the United States; the responsibility of the school in helping the community provide work for young people in the process of growing up will be recognized and thousands of students will be enabled to stay in school and to complete the education which can benefit them and society. Incidentally, if a flexible time schedule is not provided so as to make it possible for young people to work and go to school, many, particularly from families with the lower incomes, will drop out of school and probably never again continue their secondary schooling. If the manpower shortage should become so severe that large numbers of children must be drawn into direct production, the choice should be made on the basis of the individual's ability to profit from further education, not the size of the family income. A choice on the latter basis is the denial of democracy.

VALUES IN WORK EXPERIENCE

On many socially desirable jobs a young person can learn habits of honesty, reliability, and dependability as well as how to get along with other workers and the boss. On a few jobs he can get vocational experience which will have exploratory values; experiences which will help him discover his strengths and weaknesses, his likes and dislikes. The importance of adult supervision and interpretation as well as coordination with a carefully planned program of study cannot be overemphasized.

For most young people it will probably be impossible to provide an actual vocational tryout. This, however, is not serious as the vocational pattern before the war indicated that nearly half of the jobs available were unskilled or semiskilled and that workers moved about from job to job and from industry to industry with great frequency. It is probable, too, that the breaking down of jobs into smaller units in war production will increase the proportion of semiskilled and unskilled jobs. In addition, as the experience of many

adults will indicate, work experiences which neither at the time were thought to be, nor later proved to be, vocational tryouts or preparation, have been very worthwhile in the development of the particular individual.

PROVIDING OPPORTUNITIES FOR WORK

If work experience is to be provided for all students, either in the final year or for a longer period of time, a huge number of jobs are needed. Some of these will always be found in the school and on public jobs in the community. A much larger number, however, must be found by the school, the individual, or the public employment agencies in private industries. These jobs are now easily found and if the importance of the work is stressed in the days of manpower shortage, cordial relationships will be developed which will make it possible to continue the process after the emergency. For it must never be forgotten that the school alone cannot possibly furnish work experience for all young people. Further, it is not the responsibility of the school to provide the actual work; instead, this is a responsibility of the community and the society in which we live. School people, however, may well offer their services in drawing together all groups interested in the development of young people—parents, employers, government, labor—to plan the program both nationally and locally. When the war ends, there will be millions who must be transferred from the armed services and war production to peacetime jobs. The rightful claims of these older workers will make it increasingly difficult for young people of school age to gain work experience unless the relationships and understanding are developed during the war years. In all probability the transition from a war economy to peacetime pursuits will be so violent that special work programs for both adults and youth will be necessary. Such a program, national in scope and national as to its financing, must be larger than anything we have known heretofore. For as good as the NYA student work program was, it never had sufficient funds either to care for all who needed the work or to allow young people to earn a sufficient amount to stay in school decently.

SECONDARY-SCHOOL WORK EXPERIENCE PROGRAMS

In recent years the various secondary-school work programs have become well known as many institutions and communities have sought to serve the youth group more effectively. The adaptations made during the war period have the same fundamental basis as

those of former years, but show the influence of the war on the occupational life of the nation.

Oakland Enables Youth to Stay in School

In Oakland, California, a plan has been developed to capitalize on the opportunity to enable students to remain in school and to assist in relieving the manpower shortage. Students who wish to work part-time while still in school are permitted to attend high school four hours daily and work four hours daily. Credit is allowed for the work and thus the length of the secondary-school program is not increased. This arrangement meets the state labor law requirements which restrict minors to an eight-hour school-work day and gives employers an opportunity to hire youth without asking them to sacrifice or postpone their high-school graduation. All jobs must meet the requirements of the state and federal child labor laws.

Participation is thus far limited to students between the ages of sixteen and eighteen years. The number of students enrolling for the school-work program in the first year of its operation reached 2500 out of approximately 6500 students of eligible age enrolled in Oakland's eight high schools.

In some cases two students are filling one eight-hour job; one student works in the morning and the other in the afternoon. However, due to the demands from the many industries in the area, most jobs are on a strictly part-time basis, the students going to school in the morning and working in the afternoon. There are far more requests for students to work than there are students who are desirous of or eligible for entering the program. In fact, jobs paying as much as \$1 per hour are not being filled in some cases.

In order to make the plan function, it was necessary to appoint in each high school a teacher who is called coordinator of work experience. He articulates work with the school and sees that conditions conform to those outlined by the War Manpower Commission. If the student already has a job in mind and knows the hours he will work, the school program is arranged on a four-hour-a-day basis and the student is sent to the coordinator of work experience, who arranges for his work permit and signs him up as a member of his work experience group.

If a student wants but does not have a job, the counselor sends him to the coordinator of work experience who arranges for him to go to the United States Employment Service, Junior Division. Here the student finds a job suited to his abilities and aptitudes. He

then obtains a work permit and returns to school to be registered in the work experience group. He reports to his counselor to have his school course arranged.

Since jobs are plentiful, students are expected to find employment within a few days after they indicate their desire to join the work experience group. If they find an opportunity to better themselves, they may change jobs up to the end of the first five weeks of the semester. After this time they are asked to remain on their jobs for a full semester if they wish to earn school credit for work, just as they remain in any class for the entire semester. This has a tendency to stabilize the entire program, both for the school and for business and industry.

The supervision of students on the job has been organized by districts thruout the East Bay area. Each high-school coordinator of work experience is responsible for the supervision of all students working in his particular district, whether they are from his or any one of the seven other high schools in Oakland. In this way a large factory or business employing students from several high schools has only one person supervising them.⁴

Hamden Alternates School and Work

Another plan followed in Hamden, Connecticut, during the past two years is part of the work experience program promoted thruout the state in connection with the war guidance work sponsored by the state youth personnel service. Again school credit is provided and again the school protects the student by organizing the program and articulating it with the school program.

The Hamden plan calls for students to work two weeks in plants, libraries, offices, and hospitals, and to attend school for a like period while members of another group take over their jobs.

The students are selected seniors who have expressed interest in the plan and who are considered qualified. Industry and business specify the positions available and the qualifications desired. The school, thru its war guidance program, matches the qualifications from the selected group, and both the employer and the student must give assurance to stick with the plan for a school year.

Two students are paired on one full-time job. One works on the job while the other attends classes. In the past, teammates have exchanged places every two weeks, but beginning in September 1943

⁴ Information received from George C. Bliss, director, department of occupational adjustment, Oakland, California, public schools.

the period of alternation became one week. This change was based on the belief that the student lost too much contact with the school and required a period of orientation every time he returned to the classroom.

A special program of studies is provided for the students taking the work experience program. Required subjects are English, occupational information, problems of democracy, and review mathematics. In addition, they may elect one of the following: industrial arts (including mechanical drawing), office practice, or household arts. The work experience is considered one subject, and five credits toward graduation are given for it.⁵

Turtle Lake Has a Flexible Plan

An innovation, which was of considerable interest before the war and which will be equally valuable later in many small communities, developed in Turtle Lake, North Dakota, population 632, in 1940-41.⁶ It requires no financial aid—only ingenuity, imagination, and a willingness to work on the part of a school faculty.

Eighteen seniors were assigned work in the community, either in their first or second choice of jobs. Each student worked two hours a day, five days a week. Some were unpaid occupational interns, others received compensation. Employers in the community responded enthusiastically in instructing and developing the young people rather than in trying to exploit them. Clearance for the plan was received from the state workmen's compensation board, the state department of education, the Social Security Board, the state banking board, and local union groups.

Careful planning on the part of the faculty provided coordination of instruction in school with learning on the job. The school and the community were so well satisfied with the initial trial that a waiting list for the following year developed before the opening of school.

Work Experience in Seattle

Seattle⁷ has been an area of labor shortage since late in 1942. A survey made in the spring of 1943 indicated that 60 percent of the

⁵ Education for Victory. "Earn While They Learn." *Education for Victory* July 15, 1943, p. 17.

⁶ Slater, Henry L. "A Cooperative Training Program in a Small School." *School Review* 49:761-65; December 1941.

⁷ Information furnished by Ira T. Miller, acting public relations assistant, Seattle, Washington, public schools.

boys and 40 percent of the girls were working part-time, an average of sixteen to twenty hours per week.

The schools have sponsored many efforts to relieve the shortage and to provide profitable work experiences. For example, in October 1943, 387 high-school boys were organized to serve for five days as apple harvesters in the Wenatchee Valley. Twenty-one students with some background in mechanical drawing were placed as part-time apprentice draftsmen in the engineering department of a local shipyard. These boys worked four hours in the afternoons. Over two hundred senior girls seventeen years of age or older have begun training as draftsmen for the engineering department of the Boeing Aircraft Company. Eight young men who graduated in June 1943 were trained as flight stewards for the Pan-American Airways, Alaska Division, and have now begun a permanent career with the transportation company.

The Seattle schools have a full-time staff member assigned to the local office of the United States Employment Service. This individual serves as a coordinator between the labor market and the school system. He counsels high-school students about their placement problems and helps control the recruitment and placement of in-school youth on part-time jobs.

Credit toward graduation is given for work experience. Transfer may only be made with the consent of the principal of the school in which the student is enrolled. An employer's report of the student work record indicates attendance, punctuality, and job performance and is filed as part of the permanent record.⁸

WARTIME STANDARDS FOR WORK EXPERIENCES

The New York State Committee on Youth proposed a series of standards for the guidance of schools of the state. Based on a pronouncement of the War Manpower Commission, it offers a partial basis for inaugurating a program during the war period.

1. Only youth who have reached their fourteenth birthday should be employed full-time or part-time in industry, commerce, or agriculture.
2. Whenever youth contemplate entering a wartime service, they should be guided and encouraged to complete special educational

⁸ For other illustrations see American Association of School Administrators, *Schools and Manpower*. Twenty-First Yearbook. Washington, D. C.: the Association, a department of the National Education Association, 1943. Chapter 2, "Learning to Work," p. 32-63. Also, Jacobson, Paul B., editor, *Youth at Work*. Bulletin No. 99. Washington, D. C.: National Association of Secondary-School Principals, a department of the National Education Association, May 1941. p. 144.

programs that will increase their competence, and school officials should provide such training within the facilities and financial resources available to them.

3. Youth under eighteen years of age should be employed for war-time work, only when the hours and conditions of employment are such as to safeguard their physical, social, and moral welfare. Youth fourteen and fifteen years of age should be employed only when qualified older workers are not available.

4. When pupils are released from school for full-time or part-time work, they should be guarded against undue loss of educational opportunities and service.

5. Employers should certify to the school authorities that a critical need exists for the labor of youth and that the employment will be in conformity with the state and federal laws governing the work of minors.

6. The instructional and placement services of the school should be redesigned in order to fit pupils more adequately for emergency employment opportunities. School officials should cooperate with civic, economic, social welfare, employer, labor, and farm groups to assist youth in adjusting their educational programs to work requirements and to safeguard the long-term values of education.⁹

CRITERIA FOR SECONDARY-SCHOOL WORK EXPERIENCE

There are, however, many other considerations than those listed by the New York State Committee on Youth. Leonard¹⁰ has proposed eight considerations which summarize well the points made in earlier sections, and which can be used to judge practices and to determine procedures. While they cannot be quoted in detail, excerpts will indicate the principal emphasis of each.

First, a good work experience program requires a combination of physical work and study on a specific problem or endeavor. By contrast, this would mean that youth would not study subjects for one-half day and then be released to work one-half day on projects which had no relation to the school program . . . there should be . . . a recognition on the part of the school of its responsibility to provide training and study in areas in which experience is actually being secured. . . .

Second, the work experience program should provide opportunity for both social and vocational experiences. . . .

Third, a corollary of the second is that the program of work experience should be varied. Some work should be done by youth in the school and in the community . . . without consideration of pay. . . . They need to work at home . . . to contribute their share . . . in other

⁹ New York State Education. "Report of the Committee on Youth Needs." *New York State Education* 30: 646-67; June 1943.

¹⁰ Leonard, J. Paul. "The Nature of Work Experience." *Bulletin of the National Association of Secondary-School Principals* 27: 8-11; January 1943.

services . . . from which they gain financial rewards. Youth should participate. . . .

Fourth, the work should be achieved under the normal conditions of the job. . . .

Fifth, ample time and recognition must be given to the work experience. Three factors are important here: (a) a flexible time schedule, (b) school credit, and (c) financial reward. . . .

Sixth, the work should be progressive and adjusted to the maturity and goals of youth. Work experience should be begun at home as small children, even before they enter the first grade. It should continue thruout the elementary school in the form of family, school, and community service. In the secondary school these types should continue and be supplemented by vocational and money-earning experiences. . . .

Seventh, a work experience program should be supplemented by an adequate program of guidance, placement, and follow-up. Where work has been found for youth, it has too often been busy work or just work which needed to be done. . . . Work is meaningless unless it develops potential abilities or interests which are personally and socially profitable. Following this there needs to be a program of placement on jobs, a follow-up of success and deficiencies, and, if need be, reteaching and replacement.

Eighth, and finally, the work needs to be supervised by those who can recognize the characteristics of success on the job. . . . No one should supervise youth who does not know well the requirements of the job, who is not able to analyze difficulties, and who cannot recognize successes.

PROBLEMS IN PROVIDING WORK EXPERIENCES THRU THE SECONDARY SCHOOL

When work experience programs now in operation are examined in terms of the eight criteria just listed, several distinct shortages are immediately recognized. The granting of school credit, while increasingly common, is still a debated issue. If work has educational value and is worthy of school sponsorship, there is every reason for granting credit. Learning to work is one of the developmental tasks of young people; how well they progress is a pertinent part of the record.

The problem of supervision of work is a difficult one. Not many schools have successfully solved it. Certainly there must be a most complete cooperative relationship between the school, and the outside agencies in which students work if the school is to make this experience one of maximum value.

Payment for work, while stimulated by the war, is not a condition which is universally found. There are many reasons for this. Child-

labor laws in some states create problems for the employer. Also, the social security status of the small employer may be endangered if he takes on additional student help. In certain states, workmen's compensation laws provide no protection for the younger worker. Labor groups have on occasion objected to a potential increase in the labor force. Often adults will require less employer supervision than students. Certainly these problems must be faced. However, the illustrations cited in this chapter have indicated how these selected communities—and many more could be listed—have gone a long way toward solving these difficulties.

The inability to adjust time schedules has too often proved to be a stumbling block to the provision of work experiences. The plan of four hours at work and four hours at school, which has become so popular during the war, is one way of securing a proper time relationship between work and study, making work during the regular day possible.

Individual students probably fail to secure maximum values because they do not have a sufficient variety of experiences. In some schools they are limited to one work experience in the senior year. This is an area in which much constructive educational planning is essential. Greater variety for the individual, as well as succeedingly more challenging opportunities, should be provided from kindergarten thru high school. There is a tremendous gap between the efforts of elementary schools and those of secondary schools. Continuity in the growth experiences of the boy or girl should receive increasing attention.

Outside of what is being done in agriculture, and occasionally home economics, there are few examples of a well-developed relationship between work and the curriculum or work and study within the school. Until this coordination is achieved, the educational values claimed for work can be realized in only a very limited way. Work experience will be merely a fringe activity unless it is made a vital part of the on-going educational process.

Certainly the shortcomings which have been mentioned are real but they can be overcome if schoolmen accept the challenge and gain the cooperation of other community groups involved. Probably the greatest hindrance to providing work experience is the "educational daydream"—the belief of many parents and educators that a large number of the jobs in our society are degrading or at least undesirable. There is a belief, too, that high-school attendance is the road to preferment and success. As the high school more nearly

enrols all the children of all the people, such a belief is untenable, for all the children of all the people must perform all the tasks in our society—in the homes, the forests, the farms, and the factories. When secondary education is accepted as a way of life for all adolescents in which learning to work has a part, the daydream will give place to reality.

WORK EXPERIENCES THRU THE ELEMENTARY SCHOOL

As has been suggested thruout the earlier sections of this chapter, work has educational values for elementary as well as secondary-school students. Yet elementary schools have been slow to recognize the essential significance and educational importance of work. Unfortunately there is little relationship between the efforts to extend educational opportunities in this area on the two school levels. The way in which elementary and secondary experiences might desirably supplement one another in contributing toward continuous and progressive development has already been mentioned.

The superintendent of schools in Montgomery County, Maryland, has prepared a most helpful interpretation of work experience on the elementary level and has shown how it is being developed in the schools under his leadership.¹¹

Bridging the Gap Between School and Life

It is natural for children to be active. Work, where the consequences of their efforts can be lived, gives real satisfaction to children. It makes the work have meaning and importance to the child. On the other hand, make-believe work experiences, for which the child can neither feel nor see any consequences, tend to put activities on an artificial basis.

The living, the work, the activities, or the problems carried along in the world outside the school are found to be important in the school program. Thus the work in the outside world and in the school have a counterpart in the work experiences of elementary children.

The adult work experience is concerned primarily with achieving results in the field of endeavor. Children are in an incomplete growth stage. The work experience program for them can thus become a means of living, growing, and maturing.

The value of the experience is in making it a means of the child's development and is the principal object of a work experience pro-

¹¹ The remainder of this chapter, except for interpreted notations, was prepared by Edwin W. Broome, superintendent, public schools, Montgomery County, Rockville, Maryland.

gram for children in the elementary grades. The production coming from the work becomes a secondary value to children.

Work for children should be so organized as to have sound curriculum principles, plans, and learning procedures if values in technics, understandings, insights, and growth are to be present. Work experience is not added to the school; it is school as much as anything else in the program.

In another way the work experience helps to bridge the gap between the school experience and the outside world. The symbols used in the school to represent life in the world outside are so often removed from actuality that the child finds it difficult to realize any corresponding existence. Thus the work experience program becomes a valuable means for children to live the real aspect of what they are studying, instead of only the symbols.

Work Has Many Facets

The idea that in the elementary school one should experience living before the symbol for it is developed, leads on to the idea that children begin to do things and to act before they can develop the full learning, or understand the symbol expressive of the experience. Learning develops out of the experiences is another way of saying that action comes ahead of learning. Thus work experience may be thought of as:

1. A sound procedure in teaching
2. A valid curriculum organization
3. A way of relating the school to living
4. A challenge that is natural to children
5. A contribution to the labor needs of the community as a secondary consideration
6. An excellent opportunity for the technic of learning to be applied in actual, genuine living, the consequences of which the child can experience
7. An opportunity for the school and the community to be unified.
8. An opportunity for firsthand experiences to develop and become the basis of further enlargement and extension by the use of other materials which have to be presented thru some kind of representation in symbols.

Considerations in Planning Work Experiences

To be effective, every teacher must accept work experience as an integral part of the school's educational program under the following conditions:

1. Each experience must be definitely planned
2. Desired understandings and outcomes must be set up in advance
3. Work experience must be interrelated with the rest of the pupil's program
4. Each experience must be approved after consideration of the pupil's particular needs
5. Adequate supervision to insure proper learning must be furnished.

Work Experience Opportunities for Elementary Children

Work experience programs fall in two main classifications: in-school projects and out-of-school projects.

In-school projects include:

1. Maintenance (keeping rooms straight, cleaning, repair work, grounds, gardening)
2. Service projects (cafeteria, library)
3. Welfare work (Red Cross, social service, pupil needs)
4. Construction (building projects for activities, remodeling)
5. Individual projects with economic value for the pupil (building furniture, art metal work, home economics, making clothing, selling food)
6. Clerical work (secretarial work for teachers, office work)
7. Production (vegetable gardens, flower gardens, seedling trees and plants, canning, raising poultry and animals).

Relating Study and Work

How work experience can be enlarged in the school program is illustrated in the following program for cleaning rooms, practiced as part of the wartime plans in education.

Children are doing more and more in cleaning and decorating buildings. Sometimes this work is organized as a victory program, sometimes as a war program, sometimes as part of the total school attempt to make everything children do become subjectmatter. The following is an example of how subjectmatter is being recognized in the cleaning program. Plans are made for a study of:

- The tools useful in cleaning
- The materials needed in cleaning
- The time required for cleaning
- The appropriate hours for cleaning
- A schedule so that the cleaning fits in with other things
- Group organization with leaders where the activities would be apportioned and exchanged.

The technics of cleaning, which include such things as:

- How to get a room vacated for cleaning
- How to shift furniture

How to sweep
 How to clean
 How dust is kept down
 How to ventilate a room while it is being cleaned
 How to dress for cleaning.

Standards for determining progress, dealing with such things as:

Checking to evaluate skills, materials used, protection of clothing, and so forth

Evaluation and redirection of the program

The services that can be rendered now in helping to meet the manpower problem since only half as many people are available for all civilian work.

It is significant to notice how schools are going still further by making the learnings, the plans for doing the work, and the needed technics part of the values in a study of problems. Examples of possible content in the cleaning program are:

Health values such as dress, fresh air, cleanliness, disease germs

The labor problem

Manpower in the present crisis

Community possibilities in caring for the school plant

Democratic procedures involved in planning solutions for local problems

Mathematical aspects such as quantities, costs, time, efficiency, durability, the number of workers

Esthetic values such as satisfaction in work well done, a well-arranged room, a room organized for the specific work to be done, opening up the center of a room for a new effect, rearrangement of furniture to fit occasions.

It helps to see what detailed planning can do. It is promising to see technics worked out with the children and then learned, in place of simply commanding work and learning to be accomplished.

In-School Work

Some examples of the in-school work opportunities with some intimation of the skills and technics are illustrated in the following list:

In-School Work Opportunities

MAINTENANCE

Skills and Technics

How to analyze soil; how to improve soil; how to plan arrangement; how to develop continuing

*In-School Work
Opportunities*

Landscaping school grounds

Keeping grounds in order, cutting grass, etc.

Washing blackboards, keeping homerooms clean, cleaning cafeteria

Sanding, varnishing, and repairing desks and tables

**CONSTRUCTION
WORK**

Building hothouses and frames, etc., for production projects

Building pens, brooders, poultry houses, etc., for production projects

**SERVICE
PROJECTS**

Helping in the school cafeteria

Equipping and operating

Caring for the library, repairing books, serving as student librarians

Skills and Technics

program; how to apportion work; how to work in groups.

How to budget time; how to organize groups; how to routinize work; how to recognize needs.

How to clean and care for property; how to apportion and accept responsibility; how to utilize resources at hand; how to use and conserve materials; how to make plans and carry them out; how to use tools skilfully; how to order parts for the tools; how to keep time sheets; how to make reports; how to keep records; how to follow directions; how to complete jobs.

How to use tools; how to order parts and supplies; how to stick to tiresome, routine work; how to care for equipment; how to plan and budget time.

How to develop a long-time program; how to choose immediate needs; how to organize for group activity; how to make plans and blueprints; how to read plans and blueprints; how to draw to scale; how to determine costs and make out bills of materials; how to use construction tools; how to meet building regulations; how to meet safety regulations; how to utilize resources at hand; how to work within a budget; how to co-operate with other groups; how to stick to fatiguing jobs; how to complete work undertaken; how to find satisfaction in doing work well.

How to prepare menus; how to prepare and serve food; how to determine prices; how to take money and make change; how to make inventories; how to care for equipment; how to wash and clean equipment.

How to select and purchase equipment; how to work within a budget; how to budget time and accept responsibility; how to care for a sick person; how to use judgment in meeting emergencies; how to develop good health habits.

How to catalog and keep books in order; how to care for and repair books; how to keep records; how to issue books; how to divide and assign work.

In his original manuscript Broome analyzes many more in-school work opportunities among which are the following: (a) serving at faculty teas, P.-T.A., and student functions; (b) traffic supervision; (c) work on staging and producing plays and programs; (d) arranging assembly programs; (e) writing and producing the schoolpaper; (f) operating a school store; (g) planning and conducting fire drills; (h) organizing and carrying out Red Cross, social service, community chest, U.S.O., and similar campaigns; (i) taking school inventories; (j) planting crop-bearing trees; (k) preserving fruit; (l) marketing fruit; (m) raising seedling plants for transplanting; (n) animal and poultry raising; (o) making lawn ornaments.

Under the heading, out-of-school work opportunities, Broome listed similar suggestions such as (a) housekeeping; (b) gardening; (c) soil conservation; (d) feeding and care of animals; (e) delivering papers, circulars, and magazines; (f) mowing lawns and caring for gardens; (g) making minor household repairs; (h) shoveling snow; (i) soliciting of Red Cross, U.S.O., and social service agencies. In each case the skills and technics to be learned were carefully detailed as guides for adult supervision.

An analysis of home situations resulted in a list of responsibilities children might have as a means of eliminating waste:

- Stacking and disposing of newspapers
- Hanging up clothing in the proper way
- Returning bottles to the grocery store
- Cleaning, flattening, and delivering tin cans to the local salvage agency
- Winding cord and twine and saving it for later use
- Folding and storing paper bags to be reused
- Hanging towels and wash cloths to be used again
- Proper placing of tools and garden hose
- Turning off lights which are not in use
- Cleaning shoes carefully.

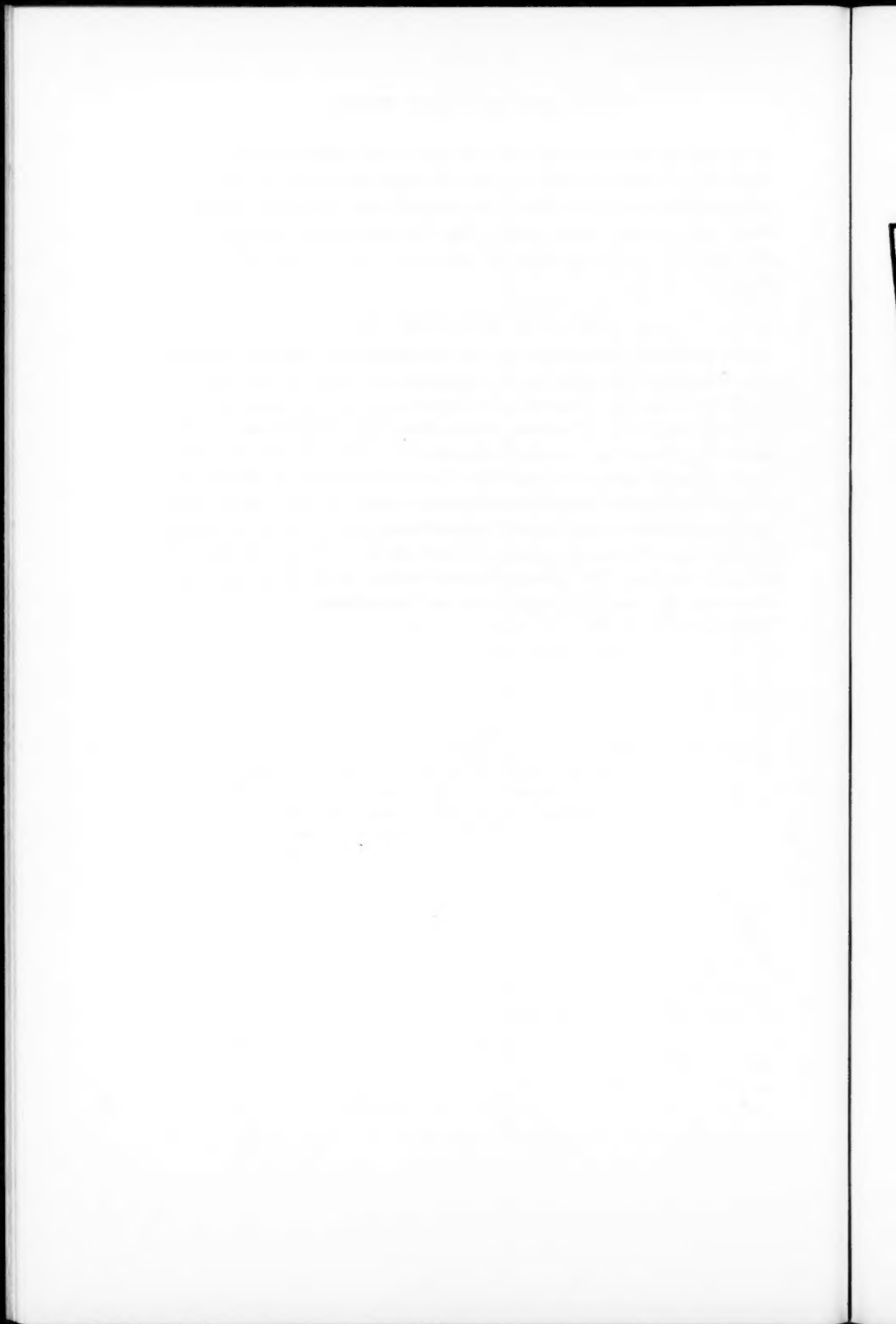
Broome advocates having elementary-school children (a) select the responsibilities they will assume at home after conferring with their parents; (b) write a letter to their parents informing them of the plan on which the class is working; (c) develop a plan for recording the work and progress of each child; and (d) select a committee to receive children's reports.

Broome further proposes that work experiences be an integral part of the curriculum. He suggests a series of units and describes each to reveal the understandings, work experiences, skills, and other activities which might be developed. For example, the work experi-

ences already listed indicate what could be done under unit problems, such as how must we help increase the food supply for the coming year, and how must we save food grown in the production garden? Many schools have made similar plans for instruction which include provision for real responsibility and work on the part of young children.

VALUES IN WORK EXPERIENCE

The profound changes in our culture during the past few decades have decreased the opportunity and need for work on the part of children. Gradually the educative importance of work has come to be recognized. The freedom granted American children and youth has its greatest values when supplemented by situations which stimulate a desire to accept responsibility. The encouraging of children to see jobs which need to be done, and the chance to carry these jobs thru to completion successfully and independently, contribute to the development of worthy group membership as well as a feeling of personal success. The potential contribution to an orientation to vocational life is equally significant and important.





Extending the
School Time

PART II

Extending the School Time

All movements toward a new curriculum must be responsive to changing conditions and new demands which indicate the necessity of extending the periods of time when schools are serving individual social needs. In many communities broad programs of recreation and camping are being developed as integral parts of year-round educational service. It is our responsibility as educators to develop these pioneering efforts as we seek better ways to foster democratic living.

6

Extending the School Day and Year

One significant aspect of the recent movements toward a new curriculum has been the widespread use of school facilities and personnel for longer periods during the day, the week, and the year. Two phases of this development, the extended school day and summer programs, are presented in this chapter. One aspect of this type of extension, school camps, is described in Chapter 7.

The influence of the war on these developments has been particularly noticeable. Altho some communities had made informal arrangements for recreational programs after school hours, on Saturdays, and thruout the summer months, there was nothing comparable to the great upsurge of activity which has been recorded in recent months. The demands for women in industry with the consequent necessity for caring for their children, and the alarming increase in juvenile delinquency have aroused communities to a recognition of the importance of extending children's programs.

However, pressures of the times have raised many issues for public discussion. Should mothers of young children work? Is the school invading or assuming a necessary responsibility of the home in increasing the scope of its program? Should extended opportunities be offered to all children on either a fee or a free basis? What kind of experiences should be provided in these broadened programs? The variety and number of problems, many of which have repeatedly been considered by the daily newspapers of the country, suggest something of their controversial nature as well as the widespread interest in their solution.

The illustrations which follow reveal in concrete terms the issue and problems encountered. Some of the values which should be safeguarded in the postwar period are presented.

AN EXTENDED SCHOOL DAY

The Toledo school system¹ began its extended school services for children of working mothers on April 19, 1943, by opening nine centers for school-age children and nine centers for preschool children.

On June 1, 1943, children were enrolled in before- and after-school programs for school-age groups with age distributions as follows: ten in the six-year-old group; twenty-seven, seven-year-old; twenty-seven, eight-year-old; twenty-five, nine-year-old; fifteen, ten-year-old; six, eleven-year-old; five, twelve-year-old; three, thirteen-year-old; two, fourteen-year-old. It will be noted that the largest groups fell within ages seven, eight, and nine. The age range represented in some individual centers was as great as six to fourteen.

All centers were in school buildings except for two in housing projects. Summer brought the enrolment to 324 children, an average of thirty-six to each center.

The aim in all of the centers is to establish a home-like atmosphere. In some, more than in others, we have accomplished this. For example, in one we have a corner that resembles a living-room. Here, there is a large rug on which are grouped easy chairs, a foot stool, a victrola, a floor lamp, a table, and cots. Curtains hang at the windows. The other part of the room contains the easels, the sewing tables, and a space for clay work.

Another center which is housed in one of the city's oldest school buildings has the entire floor devoted to the school-age center. Three large rooms comprise the unit: a large center room with a raised platform at one end is suitable for dramatics and indoor play; adjoining the center room is a work room for clay, painting, and wood work; the other adjoining room is used as a living-room where children may read, play quiet games, or play the piano. This room has book shelves, a piano, tables and chairs, and small rugs.

Hours of operation of centers range from 6:30 A.M. to 7:00 P.M. and are based entirely upon reasonable needs of working mothers. At the beginning of the program twenty-six children were served breakfast at school; most of the children had lunch there and some of the children had supper at school. Children assist in the preparation and serving of food. A full-time cook and helper are on hand to take over the major responsibilities of food preparation and clean up for the school-age group and the preschool group housed in the same building.

¹ Materials provided by Dorothy Pasch, extended school service program, Toledo, Ohio.

At the beginning the response from the home was not as great as our surveys of need led us to believe it would be. The child-care committee, made up of representative members of the community, helped in a publicity campaign. Radio talks, newspaper articles, and fliers describing the program were used to reach the home. Cooperation of groups in the community has been outstanding.

Fees were charged parents as follows: 15¢ per day plus 15¢ for breakfast, 25¢ for lunch, 15¢ for supper.

AFTER-SCHOOL CLUBS

In Detroit for some years the Merrill Palmer School for training nursery-school teachers provided a large house for after-school club activities of school-age children who had been in the nursery-school groups of the training center. The response of parents and children had been most gratifying. Great ingenuity was shown in planning for informal activities: one room invited dramatic play; another, quiet reading; another, work with tools; and still another, preparation of food for the informal suppers. Very little money was invested in equipment. Mothers contributed old clothes for dramatics; books came from the public library; the tools, except for one \$5 jigsaw, from the five and ten cent store.

The director of the nursery-school training center became very much interested in the program of extended school services for children of working mothers and volunteered her time and some of the resources of her school to help develop an experimental center in the public schools for before- and after-school care of school-age children.

Thirty children were enrolled in this project, housed in one of the city school buildings. The children came to the center from three other school buildings at four in the afternoon. Upon arrival they visited informally among themselves and with the leader before going to the foods laboratory for fruit juice and crackers. Active play in the gymnasium followed where the children were absorbed in self-chosen games. Quiet, art activities of their own selection, came after the more vigorous play. Opportunity was provided for children to be alone if they so wished. This period was rounded out by a story before the dinner hour. Some of the children withdrew to help get food and tables ready for the evening meal. Parents called for the children at 7:00 P.M.²

² Information provided by Edna Noble White, director, Merrill Palmer School, and Eleanor McCabe, Extended School Services, public schools, Detroit, Michigan.

EXTENDING THE CITY RECREATIONAL PROGRAMS

Ann Arbor, with a high proportion of women employed in industry, investigated the need for extending the school day and the school year. This city had cooperated with the schools in building up a summer recreation program over a period of twenty-five years. A study of needs revealed that in addition to the usual summer program the schools would have the following responsibilities:

1. Day-long service, from 6:45 A.M. until 5:30 P.M.
2. Responsibility for a more complete record of the child's continued presence in the group.
3. Health supervision, a daily health inspection, provision for isolation and appropriate handling of accidents or illness during the day.
4. Food at noon and mid-afternoon, and perhaps breakfast.
5. Rest facilities.
6. Care of children every day regardless of weather, necessitating the availability of in-door facilities to an extent not necessary before.

ALL-DAY NEIGHBORHOOD SCHOOLS

In two schools of New York City^a the doors remain open until 5:00 P.M. Four hundred of the 2000 children stay after school for a play experience related to that of the classroom. Thru the cooperation of a private social organization and the board of education, all-day care is provided for the school-age children of women workers. The school serves not in a custodial capacity, but in the development of personality and in the building of democratic citizens.

Both schools are located in economically handicapped communities: one is inhabited by families of foreign extraction, and the other by Negroes. Parents have increasingly participated thru an active parents' organization. No changes have been made in the regular teaching staff, except that six additional teachers have been assigned for teaching from 11:00 to 5:00. They assist the regular teachers who wish to modify their programs and conduct the after-school recreational center. The participating private social organization contributes an educational adviser to aid the teachers and a social worker to help the children's families with their problems.

Increasingly, educational and recreational programs are being coordinated. Work in the first three grades is frequently charac-

^a Information secured from Daniel G. Kane, principal, Public School 194; Adele Franklin, director, All-Day Neighborhood Schools Committee, Public Education Association; and Ruth Gillette Hardy, Public School 33, New York City.

terized by trips about the city, dramatic play, dancing, clay modeling, and similar activities. Above the third grade, various classes undertake service jobs for the entire year, such as the sale of penny milk and war savings stamps; the conduct of the school library and the post office; and the management of visual instructional materials and school supplies. After school the children are organized into clubs of twenty-five to thirty. They may engage in dramatics, work in the carpenter shop, perform simple scientific experiments, or study racial groups in the city. Ample time is given individuals to pursue their own hobbies and interests.

NEWARK SUMMER PROGRAM

The Newark, New Jersey, public schools have been operating a summer program made up of five nursery-school centers, ten summer schools with expanded recreation programs, ten centers with an increase in recreational activities, and twenty-four playground recreation centers.⁴ A total expenditure of approximately \$50,000 is involved. Activities are scheduled from 7:00 A.M. to 9:00 P.M. for a period of eight weeks.

Each nursery-school center provides full-day care from 7:00 A.M. to 5:00 P.M. for approximately thirty children. A warm breakfast, a warm luncheon, and mid-morning and mid-afternoon refreshments are served. The activities include free play, manual activity, pool or shower, songs, stories, rhythms, and games.

The summer schools with expanded recreation programs are in session from 9:00 A.M. to 9:00 P.M. for a period of eight weeks. The program consists of auditorium, shop, arts and crafts, library, music, and remedial work.

The ten centers with expanded recreational programs provide opportunities for games and sports, dancing, arts and crafts, hobbies, quiet games, motion pictures, music, dramatics, stereopticon pictures, storytelling, puppetry, sewing, boxing, fencing, and photography. Some 90,000 pupils engage in these activities weekly.

Long Beach School and Community Recreation

Since 1929, Long Beach has had a coordinated plan of municipal and school recreation.⁵ Every summer special programs are arranged for those who wish to avail themselves of the facilities for children,

⁴ Material provided by Lillie J. Geisser, director of elementary education, and Charlotte E. Barton, supervisor of elementary education, Newark, New Jersey.

⁵ Information provided by Maud Wilson Dunn, coordinator, curriculum and child welfare department, public schools, Long Beach, California.

youth, and adults. For a period of nine or ten weeks, twenty-five school playgrounds and fifteen park and beach areas are supervised seven hours daily. The program includes model aircraft, gardens, handicraft, games, dramatics, music, puppetry, swimming, sailing, shop, and motion pictures.

UNRATED RECREATION AND EDUCATION

The small suburban community of Glencoe, Illinois, which has been but slightly influenced by the war, has continued over a period of years to provide a simple program of activities to meet local conditions. This is the kind of development which, with variations, will be fostered by many communities in the years ahead.

The summer recreation program sponsored by the Playgrounds Committee, Inc., which started twelve years ago, has expanded in the last few years to include adults as well as the children of our village. Over a period of several years there has been added to the playground program the summer school sponsored by the board of education. The school program includes children from nursery school thru eighth grade. Gradually we are working toward that goal of education and recreation which provides for all ages a year-round worthwhile answer to the question, "What can I do now?"

Our daily summer-school program in Glencoe provides for children's needs in the following ways:

- Companionship of other children
- A variety of worthwhile activities
- Extension of experience
- Development of hobbies
- Enriched learning
- Acquiring of new physical and mental skills.

Our summer-school program is an individualized one. In the half-day school session some children may wish or need to concentrate on the development of certain academic skills. Other children often wish to pursue some special interest such as music, dramatics, crafts, science, or hobbies, and at the same time carry on a well-balanced academic program.

One of the interesting and valuable features of this school is the fact that several age levels work in one group and that there is much interchange between groups. For example, the older girls in the child-care group have the fun and experience of actually working with the young children under the supervision of the directors of the kindergarten and nursery school.

This year a new feature has been added to the summer-school program. An all-day school session, lunch included, for children from kindergarten up is an answer to the problem of mothers actively engaged in war work—nurses' aides, Red Cross, Office of Civilian Defense workers, and others.

The recreation program has been carefully planned for all children of the village, those who do not go to summer school and those who do. The morning session is devoted to development of elementary physical skills, such as those in apparatus work, archery, tennis, baseball, and simple organized games. The afternoon session offers craft activities, sketching, music, dramatics, storytelling, camp craft, hiking, camping and hosteling trips, picnics, swimming, games, organized junior league games, first aid, and Junior Red Cross activities.

The highlight of the week is our Thursday evening community night when families bring their picnic basket to the green at North Park. Fires are ready for outdoor cooking. There is an air of informal gaiety. After supper those desiring to do so join in such games as volleyball, archery, baseball, badminton, tether ball, bowling on the green, tennis, and horseshoes. These activities are enjoyed by a large group of all ages. Later in the evening all gather in a natural amphitheater for community singing. The evening is climaxed by a special feature such as a movie, a band concert, or an amateur softball league game, including teams from a nearby army post.

There are many things we cannot have these days, but because of the fine cooperative spirit between playground committee, board of education, staff members, and the individuals of our village both old and young, we still have unrationed recreation-education in Glencoe.⁶

WARTIME CONDITIONS REVEAL NEEDS

The war is making many people aware of changes that have been taking place in the schools and is speeding them up. The lengthening of the school day and the extension of the school year are significant aspects of such developments.

Some schools have been on the front line in sensing social trends, directions, and demands and have reconstructed school programs accordingly. A few teachers have been disturbed about the children who were on the school grounds early and late, disregarded by the school. Most of these teachers, tho disturbed, were overworked with the subjectmatter requirements of the curriculum and felt that they did not have the time and energy which an extension of their school day and year would necessitate.

⁶ Statement by Dorothy Jane Dodd and Zoa A. Favoright, teachers in schools of Glencoe, Illinois.

Before the war, after-school and summer recreational programs seldom included planning with the total growth of children in mind and with participation by all the people who were concerned with meeting these needs. While an increasing number of school buildings were kept open after the usual school hours, and more and more playgrounds were utilized for supervised recreation, schools and communities were slow in developing plans on a communitywide basis.

Then came the war and with it additional demands upon the schools. Women were taking an increasingly active part in war production and many of them had school-age and younger children. Employment of women with very young children was discouraged by the War Manpower Commission, but for some it became necessary to take the financial responsibility of the home. Schools were called upon to extend their services by including more hours in the day and more weeks in the year when the activities of children would be supervised.

As a result, a greatly broadened program of recreation is becoming a recognized part of the school program. In communities where war needs justify additional services for children of working mothers, federal aid is provided up to 50 percent of the cost of operation of the program. The local community is called upon to assume the other half and for the most part meets its share by charging fees to the parents of the children. Where low wages make it extremely difficult to meet 50 percent of the cost thru fees, community groups contribute to make up the difference.

In a few instances the state assumes a share of the cost of operation of all war centers within the state. Local schoolboards seldom feel that they are in a position to add to the present cost of supporting schools by assuming the responsibility for additional services.

Some communities were providing war services by November 1942, but, on the whole, communities were not well organized for action until the spring and summer of 1943. By June 1943, presidential approval had been given for the operation of 149 centers to serve as many as 16,099 school-age children of working mothers with the federal government assuming 50 percent of the cost of providing such services. Many other centers were operating under private and local control.

The United States Office of Education took a very active part in the planning of the services for children of working mothers thru its publications and its regional supervisory services. State plans were

developed in thirty-eight states, Hawaii, and the District of Columbia with state departments of education and welfare working with local communities.

In most communities, initial steps in planning included a survey of the community to discover the need for such services. Usually a child-care committee as a subcommittee of the local defense council, with representation from education, welfare, church groups, labor, management, the American Association of University Women, Association for Childhood Education, business and professional women, parent-teacher associations, and others, participated in the survey and in the study of community resources that could be utilized. A statewide child-care committee took the responsibility for integrated planning on a statewide basis. The state departments of education in many states added staff services for the extended school. Schools were encouraged to provide leadership in school-age services because of their on-going concern for the education of children.

GAINS FROM EMERGENCY EFFORTS

It has been long enough since the beginning of these extended school services to sense some of the gains and to analyze some of the problems involved.

Communitywide Planning

This is a distinct sign of progress. It is important for all communities to know more about the things that are happening to children and to plan for their needs in peacetime and in wartime. Communities will be more aware, it is believed, as a result of this wartime focus.

Discovering Health Needs

The new wartime programs, especially if aided by federal funds, include health examinations of children upon entering the centers and at regular intervals. Teachers are encouraged to be on the alert for any departures from normal and children with any indications of health maladjustments are given special care. This provision of improved health supervision represents an important forward step.

Meeting the Needs of Children

Fortunately the concept of the extended school day and year has been an expression of concern for the child as an individual with needs to be met and the curriculum has been designed with this in

mind. The child, with the parent, made the decision about attending the center and supervisory groups have realized that more arithmetic or more reading as lessons to be learned would neither be inviting to the child nor provide the appropriate assistance.

The needs of children include food and rest. In many instances, teachers, with the guidance of nutritionists, gave more attention than before to food requirements of children. It became necessary to know more about the home and the foods that were being served. In turn, the parents were informed about the meals served at school and about the children's eating habits. School and home worked together.

Teachers in the extended school program for school-age children are following nutrition plans developed in good nursery schools and are taking time to encourage children to eat in a relaxed manner. Children are helping serve at inviting tables, which they assisted in arranging. Great gains are made, just as they are in nursery schools, in building more desirable eating habits.

With responsibility for a larger share of the child's waking hours, teachers and others associated with the program have become very conscious of a broad range of developmental problems which formerly were merely theoretical considerations.

Values for Teachers

Teachers are gaining a different concept of child growth. Those who are working with the children are reporting changes in their thinking. One teacher stated that she had gained most from her observation of the rest period, that she had not been aware of the child's need for relaxation until she sat by one who was trying to rest and had observed, as she helped him relax, the tenseness and stiffness of muscles. She had become convinced that all children in the elementary school would profit by such planned periods of rest.

Another teacher reported that the lunch period was her most valuable experience. She had looked upon participation in the hour as an unpleasant requirement. When she sat down at a table every day with children who were enjoying a well-balanced meal in a happy atmosphere and were helping in serving the food, she felt that she had gained many things that she could carry over to her everyday work with children.

A high-school teacher who was working after the regular school hours on extended school services reported that he had a very different idea about the values in recording evidences of growth. The progress record included participation in out-door and in-door indi-

vidual and group play, crafts, dramatics, rest, food habits. Intimate association with children gave these a new importance.⁷

UNSOLVED PROBLEMS

Public Apathy

While parents who are sending their children to the centers are enthusiastic about the services, the public as a whole has been relatively slow in accepting the idea of extending the school program. Often the underlying problems are recognized but are dismissed or explained in terms of criticism of the home or the school.

Lack of Parental Understanding

Since our regular school-age program is supported by local taxes, a new factor enters when services in public schools are provided on a fee basis. Many parents are slow to accept the idea that school-age children need care outside of school hours. The same parents may find it easy enough to give the child fifteen cents to attend a movie for several hours but may not be aware of the kind of thing that happens to a child who is left entirely to his own resources. Some parents wait until exceedingly shocking instances of juvenile delinquency are reported before they become concerned about additional recreational facilities in the community. This represents a failure to realize that a school-age child continues to need guidance outside school hours altho he may be physically mature enough to move about without apparent physical harm to himself. This is not entirely a new condition but it is exaggerated by the shift from closely supervised home life to the greater freedom of a larger and more complex community life.

The schools are not altogether blameless for this lack of a widespread realization of the social needs in a more complex community. The curriculums of our public schools are largely subject-centered in spite of our knowledge of the needs of childhood. Moreover, our schools have not offered the leadership in the community that they might have given.

Childrens' Opposition to More School

The child's first reaction to an extended school program is that it might be more of what he has been doing, and if it means addi-

⁷ Reported by Helen Edger, supervisor of extended school services, public schools, Cincinnati, Ohio.

tional lessons in reading and arithmetic, he does not want it. He carries this same response into the home and it becomes a factor in the decision that the parent is making. This is important not only in planning extended programs. It should suggest a reexamination of what has been done in the schools.

Relating Extended and Regular School Programs

The relation of extended day and year programs to regular school and the importance of unified and coordinated planning has not received adequate attention. The New York program, already described, evidenced an awareness of this problem and active concern with solving it. The relation of extended programs to home and community activities has probably been more clearly perceived. Certainly there is little justification for a compartmentalized or segmented program on either educational or financial bases.

In many cases extended programs include activities which constitute desirable modifications of the usual American schooling. If the old and the new could be harmonized and planned in terms of the welfare of children, a promising balance would result.

Securing Teachers for New Programs

The recruiting of teachers capable of leading students in the activities of an extended school day and year has been a serious problem. Not only a shortage in the number of teachers available, but also a shortage of people qualified to handle the new-type programs have presented difficulties. Directors who were responsible for the extended services looked for teachers or leaders who could function in terms of enriched experiences for children. They turned to recreational leaders, art, industrial arts, and often to kindergarten and primary teachers. They were looking for teachers who might come nearer the concept of living with children rather than teachers who teach subjects to children. At times they found promising high-school teachers who were eager to experiment with a new kind of program. Teachers responded with enthusiasm since they looked upon the work as an opportunity to express a better design for living for the teacher as well as for the child.

Different plans have developed for meeting the new demand for more teachers. Some very capable married women have returned to teaching; college graduates responded to the program with eagerness; schools experimented with a variety of plans in rotating teachers so that the teachers might contribute according to their particular

talents; people in the community were included when they had special contributions to make.

Teacher-education groups are encouraged to add to their offerings experiences that will help prepare those going into teaching for this newer concept of education. The enriched curriculum, the experience or exploratory approach with pupil participation, the concern for personality, the provision for functional health and nutritional needs, the use of the community as a laboratory, and the dynamic concept of social interaction in the process of growing are extremely vital in planning for the extended school day and year.

THE FUTURE OF THE LONGER SCHOOL DAY, WEEK, AND YEAR

The future of these programs is naturally an important question. Will they end with the war? Many which are an integral part of the wartime activities of communities will certainly cease to function. Yet the wartime ground swell of extended school services, if viewed in perspective, is but part of a long-time development. Studies of American communities reveal that there is a great need for work and play with boys and girls beyond the limits of the usual school day, week, and year. Certainly programs should be flexible—adapted to the demands of the local community and the requirements of the individual child. That all children should have access to the stimulation that will lead to wholesome development is essential. With proper planning and cooperation with homes, extended programs can contribute significantly to a better understanding of children and an improved home life for thousands of future citizens.

Schools and Camping

To the average citizen and to many educators, camping is a pleasant form of woodsy recreation. It keeps the children of the well-to-do out of mischief during the summer months. It plucks a handful of slum children, usually the more unhealthy, from the broiling pavements and transplants them to a week of fresh air.

Those who have such a conception of camping find it difficult to understand why the National Resources Planning Board says in its charter for postwar American life, "Organized camping under school auspices is one of the best means of achieving the desirable extension of the school term beyond the conventional nine months."¹ Or why an American Youth Commission study says, "To the educators of the future a major mystery of the development of their profession in the first half of the twentieth century will surely be the slowness with which camping was adopted as a functional part of the school system."² Or why President Charles W. Eliot of Harvard said, "The organized summer camp is the most significant contribution to education that America has given the world."³

We need to understand why and how camping may become a vital educational force for all children and youth, why the National Resources Planning Board makes the basic recommendation for American postwar education, "that camp facilities be made available for all youth above the lower elementary grades, with work experience provided as a part of camp life."⁴

¹ National Resources Planning Board, *National Resources Development Report for 1943: Part I, Post-War Plan and Program*. Washington, D. C.: Government Printing Office, January 1943. p. 71.

² Wrenn, C. Gilbert, and Harley, D. L. *Time on Their Hands: A Report on Leisure, Recreation and Young People*. (Prepared for the American Youth Commission.) Washington, D. C.: American Council on Education, 1941. p. 81.

³ National Park Service, U. S. Department of Interior. *The National Park Service in the Field of Organized Camping*. Washington, D. C.: the Service, 1937. p. 1.

⁴ National Resources Planning Board, *op. cit.*, p. 71.

WORK EXPERIENCE IN CAMPS

The work experience idea in camping provides a dramatic illustration of the invalidity of the traditional concept of "the camp." Instead of hiking along forest trails or dipping paddles into blue lakes, work campers raze a building and salvage materials for a community center for Negroes in what sociologists term a "border city," construct recreational facilities for coal miners' children in a pit town, survey and clear a cooperative forest in the mountains, renovate and repair school buildings in a poor county, live and work with migrants, sharecroppers, and the underprivileged.⁵

"A work camp is a camp in which a group does manual work on a project of social benefit."⁶ Consequently the camping purpose becomes service-centered rather than recreational. The American Friends Service Committee, which established work camps in 1934, conceives the program as one facet of the work of spiritual and social reconstruction of the Quakers.

Through hard physical work members of the group earn the right to share in the life of the community, and seek constructive, non-violent solutions to the problems in each region. Simple camp life, cooperative organization of camp duties, group meditation and discussion provide a setting for experience in constructive service.⁷

The sponsors of Work Camps for America and Associated Junior Work Camps interpret the work camp purpose as educative rather than religious in nature. As Eliot D. Pratt of the former group says of the agricultural work camps sponsored in 1942, "However much help they were to the local farmers, the main value inherent in these camps, I believe, was the educational experience for the campers."⁸ In purposes, in environment, in activities, the work camp is such a deviant from the traditional stereotype that some see little relationship between it and "real" camping. The challenge to educators is to use the work-camp idea. Thus they and their students may have a laboratory for vital exploration in the field of human relations and for sound work experience.

The work camp is by no means the only notable development in

⁵ For information write: American Friends Service Committee, 20 South Twelfth Street, Philadelphia, Pa.

⁶ Holland, Kenneth, and Blickel, George L. *Work Camps for High School Youth*. (Prepared for the American Youth Commission.) Washington, D. C.: American Council on Education, 1941, p. 2.

⁷ American Friends Service Committee. *1943 Volunteer Service Projects*. Philadelphia, Pa.: the Committee, 1943.

⁸ Letter from Eliot D. Pratt of Work Camps for America (dissolved January 1943), September 23, 1943.

the camping movement. Youth hostels, an exciting young development with far-reaching educational significance for postwar programs, has been described in the 1942 yearbook.⁹ Day camping has prospered, and informal use of outdoor facilities has been only temporarily checked by war.

Looming above all other developments is the fact that many of the 5000 organized summer camps, with the scenic setting and the outdoor life, no longer conform to the stereotype. As Hedley S. Dimock pointed out to a recent meeting of the American Camping Association, camping has come a long way from the simple days when there were two camping standards, "an annual inspection of the camp drinking water by the department of public health and a satisfactory record of 'ethics' on the part of the camp director as evidenced in the payment of camp bills."¹⁰

EDUCATIONAL PROBLEMS IN CAMPS

It is interesting to observe how the tribulations and progress of camping in its development are paralleled by the tribulations and progress of education. Camping literature, which has reached a sizable volume, abounds with descriptions of obstacles in the way of the good camp.

Camp leaders struggle against point systems and awards and conformity achieved thru medals and honors as a system of extrinsic motivation. This has a familiar ring to schoolmen who struggle against the tyranny of grades, the sting of the report card, all the pretty devices designed to make youth produce when the subject-matter is insignificant. Camp leaders are harassed by traditions, customs, ways of living in the camp that are a survival of what one group of campers one year thought a good idea. So Camp Woogie-woo is no more willing to drop the Chief's Friday night talks on clean living than Centerville High is willing to drop Latin from its curriculum.

Camp leadership is concerned about the failure of camps to help youngsters exercise choice in connection with the daily schedule and to have a voice in the management of their camp institutions. Schoolmen try to move toward greater participation by students in planning. Camping literature criticizes mass handling of campers;

⁹ Van Til, William. "Youth Hosteling." *Americans All*. Fourteenth yearbook. Washington, D. C.: Department of Supervisors and Directors of Instruction, a department of the National Education Association, 1942. p. 249-63.

¹⁰ Committee on Standards, American Camping Association. *Marks of Good Camping: A Synthesis of Current Standards*. New York: Association Press, 1941. p. 7.

schoolmen criticize lack of provision for individual differences. Camp leadership is coming to see the need for clear purposing, coherent values, and a sense of direction. Schoolmen have also had their struggles to move toward a program based on a defensible philosophy of education. The camp movement wrestles with the problem of directors who act like dictators and counselors who are poorly trained and unable to live democratically with campers.¹¹

CAMPING HAS PROGRESSED

Despite all the obstacles that school people know so well, the progress of camping has been marked and its potentiality is great. Today camp people characteristically say not "better camps should be doing such-and-such," but instead "better camps are doing such-and-such." Dimock, a leader in the development of camping, says, in *Survey Midmonthly*,

... although relatively unobserved by the public, significant advances have been made, not the least of them in an enlarged conception of the social uses of camping, and in the relationship of camp leaders and their agencies to other educational and social agencies. . . .

In keeping with the march of contemporary social and political events, camp leaders have reexamined the role of the camp in education for democratic living in the community. This fresh examination is leading to the concept of the camp as a cooperative or democratic community that provides an unexcelled laboratory for practice in democratic living. . . .

In the light of these new developments within the summer camps themselves, the increasing cooperation among camp directors and leaders through camping associations, the rising interest of social workers and educators in the camp as an integral phase of their function and program, and the new status of leisure activities as a human and national asset on a par with education and health, one need not be a crystal gazer to predict that the organized camp has a potentially significant role in American life.¹²

Many camps might be cited as representative of promising practice in organized summer camping. Pioneer Youth Camp at Rifton, New York, founded by educators and labor unionists, had as early as the nineteen-twenties a remarkably well-handled emphasis upon work experience. In a camp that began from scratch in 1924, the youngsters built their own ball field, set up a basketball court, built a dam

¹¹ For these and further parallels between camp and school see: Mason, Bernard S. *Democracy in the Summer Camp*. Federal Security Agency, Office of Education, Washington, D. C.: Government Printing Office, 1941.

¹² Dimock, Hedley S. "Camps on the March." *Survey Midmonthly* 76: May 1940.

to create a swimming pool, built a drain, a fireplace, and turnstiles. In later years they worked on tennis courts, a handball court, and construction of social halls, as described by Joshua Lieberman in *Creative Camping*. Choice and self-direction were basic to the Pioneer program.¹³

Combinations of town meetings and sectional representation have been successful in planning programs and discussions in camps such as Camp Martin Johnson of the Hyde Park YMCA, Chicago,¹⁴ and Camp Alfred L. Wilson in Columbus, Ohio.¹⁵ Construction activities have been emphasized in camps like the Racine YMCA's Camp Anokijig, where campers built an observation tower, a log block-house, log cabins, a pipe line, a horse corral, and a boat house;¹⁶ in Sherwood Forest Camp, St. Louis, where a pioneer village was built;¹⁷ in the red lodge built at Camp Fairwood, Michigan, and operated thru the self-government of senior campers.¹⁸ There are camps that listen to radio commentators or have their own in the person of a counselor; that have organized or informal discussions on social problems; that explore the ways of living of neighboring towns or the lore and history of the region.¹⁹ And there are many camps characterized by desirable arts and crafts, nature, athletics, relaxation, and wilderness programs.

In the Life Camps, the campers are divided into small, independent groups or families of six or eight. Each group, under competent leadership, establishes its own home in the woods. It designs, builds or remodels its living quarters. . . .

The groups grow some of their own food, make out their menus in consultation with a nutrition expert, protect their food by their own home made devices for refrigeration, and cook most of their own meals. It is necessary for them to design and build their own fireplaces and ovens for cooking and baking. The whole program of housekeeping is an essential part of living on their own. . . .

These small groups cooperate in a community way. They undertake exploration trips together and carry on numerous community projects for the welfare of the larger group. . . .²⁰

¹³ Lieberman, Joshua. *Creative Camping*. New York: Association Press, 1931. (Especially Chapter II.)

¹⁴ Institute on Character Education in the Summer Camp, Chicago, 1940. *Camping in a Democracy*. (A report of camp seminar held at George Williams College, April 5-6, 1940, by Harvie J. Boorman, and others.) Character Education in the Summer Camp, No. 7. New York: Association Press, 1941. 52 p.

¹⁵ *Ibid.*, p. 48-49. (Statement by C. H. Klippel, "A Camper-Leader-Director Council.")

¹⁶ *Ibid.*, p. 51-52. (Statement by Raymond C. Vance, "Camper Responsibility for Planning and Constructing Camp Equipment.")

¹⁷ *Ibid.*, p. 47-48. (Statement by S. H. Wyman, "Pioneer Area Project for Older Campers.")

¹⁸ *Ibid.*, p. 45-46. (Statement by Bernard S. Mason, "The Red Lodge.")

¹⁹ Mason, Bernard S., *op. cit.*, p. 17-19.

²⁰ Sharp, Lloyd Burgess. "Outside the Classroom." *Educational Forum* 7: 364; May 1943.

CAMP ACTIVITIES

A list of recommended program activities in wartime, formulated in 1942 by a conference of the American Camping Association with representatives from eleven United States government agencies, is almost encyclopedic in scope. A few selections from the list demonstrate the scope of camp experiences today: life-saving; signalling; bridge building; cooking; map drawing and reading; star study and navigation; camouflage; learning to be happy away from home; aiding farmers near camp; assisting fire wardens; repairing equipment; sharing in camp duties; health education; methods of relaxation; poisonous plants, insects, and reptiles; safety education; avoiding waste; salvaging; nutrition education; adjusting to new people in camp situations; maximum of camper activities to develop leadership under guidance of and demonstration by capable adults; setting conditions for respect of other people and their views; providing campers with opportunities to contribute something to their group; securing some international, interracial, interclass, and interfaith representation; foreign language counselors; evacuee campers in place of former exchange campers; programs built around the music, folk dances, and life of other nations; individualized objectives and guidance; providing fun and zestful play.²¹

WHO PROVIDES CAMP EXPERIENCE

In a representative state like Ohio a recent survey shows the following agencies conducting camps: Boy Scouts (28); Camp Fire Girls (5); Girl Scouts (14); YMCA (23); YWCA (11); Salvation Army (4); service clubs and fraternal orders (10); settlements and community centers (17); other civic and social agencies (17); Catholic church (11); Protestant church (9); agricultural extension service (28); other public agencies (7); private (8).²² The National Park Service,²³ which is doing a magnificent job of providing camp facilities in recreational demonstration areas for agencies unable to finance the purchase of land and the construction of their own facilities, reports that their sixty camps are used by counties, community chest agencies, labor unions, city boards of education, Y organizations, Boy Scouts, Girl Scouts, cooperative leagues, federal employees'

²¹ Report of a conference of the American Camping Association with representatives from eleven United States government agencies. *Camping—A Wartime Asset*. Chicago: American Camping Association, October 1942.

²² White, Doris Elaine. *A Study of Organized Camps in Ohio: 1938*. Columbus: Ohio State University, 1939, p. 8.

²³ Huppuch, Matt C. *Low Cost Vacations through Organized Camps*. Washington, D. C.: National Park Service, 1939, p. 1-2.

recreational organizations, and a division of state parks. Combinations of sponsors, like a welfare department and a council of social agencies, are frequent, tho sponsorship is seldom so varied as in the interesting Montgomery County, Maryland, work camp in which boys were recruited thru a school placement officer, registered by the United States Employment Service, examined by the county health department, given cots by the NYA, transported to work in school buses, and resided in a school under the leadership of camp workers paid by the county first as part of the civilian defense setup and later as part of the War Food Administration program.²⁴

Tho yeoman work in the area of education called camping is being done by agencies like those cited above, it is evident that relatively little of it is being done by the school. Yet teachers, as well as schools, are usually not employed during summer months and few teachers are so well paid that they would reject greater income for longer service. During school days camps stand idle, partially thru weather conditions but partially thru the absence of their clientele. While society deplores neglected children and the rise in delinquency, a survey of one Midwestern city reported that 87 percent of the 9000 children desired to go to a camp, while only 13 percent had ever attended.²⁵

SCHOOL CAMPS

The Kellogg Foundation organized a community school camp program in 1940 in the Michigan communities of Lakeview, Otsego, and Decatur. Each community organized a camp committee composed of parents, teachers, and campers. The committee held pre-camp meetings to discuss the camp program and its relation to teacher and parent participation. During the precamp period, counselors worked with the teachers and the students who were to go to camp for two weeks, beginning with Grade V in September 1940 and concluding with Grade XII in September 1941. The program was planned in terms of four areas of living: work experiences, health living, leisure pursuits, and social living. Among the work experiences were camp routine, planning buildings, decorating and operating a trading post, and managing a post office and a bank. The community school camp experiment was concerned with healthful living: eating proper foods and studying balanced diets both at camp and in the homes and schools, participating in relaxation for an hour

²⁴ Education for Victory. "Food for Victory' Work Camp." *Education for Victory* 1: August 1942. Also Consumers' Guide. "American Youth Pitches In." *Consumers' Guide* 9: 11-12; August 1943.

²⁵ Wrenn, C. Gilbert, and Harley, D. L., *op. cit.*, p. 82.

and fifteen minutes daily, and providing for personal cleanliness and safety. In the field of wise use of leisure the camp emphasized crafts as expression, simple tools, hikes, and building grounds where logs, stones, and other building material were available. In connection with social living, the camp worked on problems that arise when fifty children, two teachers, and six counselors live together twenty-four hours daily. Problems of honesty and care of equipment were no longer subjects for academic sermonizing but were vital problems of group living.²⁶

As Hugh B. Masters, director of the Kellogg Community School camp project, points out:

... the teacher has an interesting role in the program. She takes her place with the camp counselors, keeping full leadership of her class and at the same time utilizing the counselors as resource people to enrich the experiences of the children while in the camp.²⁷

Teachers were frequently heard to say, "I do not recognize this child as the same pupil I had in my classroom." Participating parents constantly expressed amazement that the child was able to do for himself the many things he did effectively in camp. From the experience, Masters points out these implications: that schools need more informality for learning, more opportunities for teachers and children to spend more time together outside the classroom, smaller teacher-pupil ratios for better guidance, less formal teacher education with more use of the environment in training.²⁸

The New York City camp program for public-school children grew out of the determination of a member of the board of education after her resolutions to conduct school-sponsored camps were repeatedly defeated by the board. Johanna M. Lindlof raised money thru voluntary subscriptions and a pageant. She established a committee of principals who selected underprivileged and middle-class children for camp experience. The Pioneer Youth Camp was selected. The sponsoring committee adopted as its purpose in the venture the statement of aims of the Educational Policies Commission of the National Education Association: self-realization, social relationships, economic efficiency and well-being, and civic responsibility. During the summers of 1939 to 1942, inclusive, 259 public-

²⁶ Masters, Hugh B. "A Community School Camp." *Elementary School Journal* 41: 736-44; June 1941.

²⁷ *Ibid.*, p. 745.

²⁸ *Ibid.*, p. 746-47.

school children experienced 478 months of camping at a cost of \$45 a month per child.

One highly desirable feature of this New York City experiment in camping was the persistent attempt to evaluate results. Studies were made of the mental level and environmental status of the campers and of the growths resulting from attendance at camp, such as the efficacy of the camp in a corrective capacity with respect to growth in skills and knowledges, improvement in mental health, growth in social relationships, growth in interests and aptitudes, improvement in physical health, and growth in effective use of leisure time.

Thru follow-up work an attempt was made to compensate for the lack of close relationship of teachers and classes to the project. A social worker, employed by the committee, visited home and school, and gave the physical and social records and detailed counselor reports to teachers and principals.

The Johanna M. Lindlof Camp Committee for Public School Children has recommended that the New York City Board of Education work experimentally with camping. In their findings they point out to the board that a good camping program is of especial benefit to children from homes with difficulties, for it results not only in the child's mental growth but in the correction of undesirable habits and attitudes. Their experience has been that a second, third, or fourth summer results in continued growth. They are enthusiastic about the opportunities to further democratic living and to attain the aims mentioned above.²⁹

The board of education in Catskill, New York, which is interested in a twelve months' program of education, sponsors a camp, with the aid of local agencies, a mile from the high school. Like many such school camps, it began as a day camp. The physical education department of the school manned the camp and it was concerned largely with activities like games and hiking. By the summer of 1942, "the camp operated on a seven-day basis for six weeks, serving three hundred children of all races and creeds, aged 4 to 18. . . . Children attended the camp for two weeks each."³⁰

Irvington, New Jersey, owes its health camp, established in 1927, to the parent-teacher groups of the community which were then

²⁹ Johanna M. Lindlof Camp Committee for Public School Children, Publications Committee, William Jansen, chairman. *Adventures in Camping*. New York: the Committee, 1943. p. 1-71.

³⁰ Hammond, Maurice. "School Camping Education." *New York State Education*. October 1942.

called the Home and School Associations. The camp has a recreation-centered program for one hundred undernourished and underprivileged children between the ages of seven to fourteen, who stay in camp for a month. The sponsor, the Irvington Home and School League, consists of officers of the parent-teacher organizations in the several schools, the health officer of the town, a doctor, the school nurses, the school superintendent, and other persons elected by this membership.³¹

The day camp, with which school camping frequently begins, is well illustrated by the Dowagiac, Michigan, program. The Fitch Foundation provided the schools with a seventy-acre tract and camp funds for the small industrial community of 5000 people. The school system, which was already operating summer play areas and a summer band, sponsors the camp with personnel from the school staff and mature youngsters from the schools. Salaries are paid jointly by the board of education and the foundation. Equipment is moved from the school cafeteria to the camp kitchen at the close of the school year. Youngsters from kindergarten thru the eighth grade are transported by school buses to the camp, there to engage in games, crafts, swimming, relaxation, and hikes. One highly desirable part of the program is that these youngsters, notoriously deprived by society of work experience which is not exploitation, work daily in the garden under the direction of Smith-Hughes agriculture teachers and in conjunction with the Future Farmers of America group, police the grounds, clean the beach, and help in construction work. In the latest season reported, camp was held for twenty-nine days with an average daily attendance of seventy-four children.³²

The Los Angeles public schools have been conducting playgrounds for some twenty years and for ten years prior to 1942 camping was a minor part of the summer program. Groups of twenty to twenty-five boys paid for their camping experience thru two to three hours of daily work in the reforestation project gathering seeds, working in the propagating beds, making trails, and furnishing and cooking their own food under supervision. Impressed with the importance of the camp idea, the city schools conducted three camps on school grounds in 1942 and also sponsored outings and back-country hikes. In 1943 the camping experience was extended to five days on the school sites and seven days in the reforestation center at a cost of \$3

³¹ Materials provided thru the courtesy of Herschel S. Libby, superintendent of schools, Irvington, New Jersey.

³² Materials provided thru the courtesy of Charles R. Canfield, Dowagiac City Schools, Dowagiac, Michigan.

a week per camper. The board of education paid for leadership, supervision, maintenance, equipment, and transportation; the camper paid for his food.³³

During 1943 Atlanta educators cooperated with the Optimist group in the newly established Camp Optimist, and with the United States Forest Service, the American Business Club, and the Atlanta Boys' Club in a camp in the Chattahoochee National Forest. As part of the Atlanta program, J. C. Murphy Junior High School uses the Park Service camp for a week annually with a hundred students. Since 1940 elementary schools have also utilized a week of camp education. Each of the six elementary schools lends one teacher to the junior high school for the camp week. In return, the junior high school lends two men to the elementary school at camp.³⁴

As school camping develops, it should not be considered something extra but should be an integral part of the school's all-year program. School and camp should be intimately related in philosophy, program, and means of evaluation. Further, they should be characterized by continuity in their preplanning, their follow-up, and the educational approach of their personnel.

Teachers colleges can help make the school camp a real educational service by encouraging camping as one kind of field activity for the teacher in training and by allowing credit for work camp experience as many colleges now do. Educators could encourage utilization of camp seminars like that of George Williams College in Chicago, or the workshop program of the Kellogg Foundation at Battle Creek, or courses like that offered by New Jersey state teachers colleges in collaboration with camp leaders, or graduate work in leadership training in camping education thru National Camp in New York City.

CRITERIA

The following criteria for a good school camp are proposed for the consideration of schools that follow the pioneers into extending educational opportunities thru camp experience.

School Camp Purposes and Philosophy

1. The school camp should have as its central objective helping

³³ Based on a letter from C. L. Glenn, head supervisor, physical education, Los Angeles City School District.

³⁴ Circulars and materials from M. E. Coleman, assistant superintendent in charge of elementary schools, Atlanta, Georgia, September 1943.

Richardson, Maribel, and Burgess, H. O., *Upon This We Stand: We Go Camping*. Atlanta, Ga.: J. C. Murphy Junior High School, 1942.

young people understand the democratic way of life and practice it in their relationships with others.

a. The school camp should treat each youngster as an individual. It should guide him, help him to face his problems, help him develop his potentialities, open up new interests to him.

b. The school camp should help youngsters to live with others, giving and taking, sharing and accepting responsibilities, constantly learning to widen the area of shared interests thru partaking in enterprises with others for objectives commonly agreed upon by the participants.

c. The school camp should stress problem solving, using the method of intelligence.

d. The school camp should help youngsters to be concerned for human welfare, in and outside the camp.

Programs To Achieve Purposes

1. The school camp should fully utilize its environment for educative ends, whether that setting be the field, forest, and stars of the organized out-of-doors summer camp, or the community setting of the work camp.

2. The school camp should teach social living and citizenship thru using as the raw materials of education those situations and problems which arise in the everyday life of the camp. (Democratic values should be applied not only to the present camp problem which serves as the source but also to larger social issues related to the immediate problem.)

3. The school camp should involve camper and staff planning, and cooperative conduct of the program.

4. The school camp should be an informal experience where fun and joy are cherished and promoted.

5. The school camp should be a place where health and vigor are improved, and where health, nutrition, and safety practices are learned thru the demands of camp living, and expanded upon by educationally alert adults.

6. The school camp should encourage and develop work experiences of a variety of kinds thru which campers come to understand the dignity of labor, and the significance of shared responsibility in democratic living.

7. The school camp should continuously evaluate and appraise its

program in the light of its values and periodically report its findings to interested groups.

8. While the school camp should fully utilize work experience, forest living, crafts, hikes, athletics, dramatics, and similar activities, it should not conceive its function to be that of a noneducative, non-intellectual agency devoted simply to recreation and physical culture.

9. While the school camp should fully utilize such activities as discussion, reading, forms of self-government, community visitation and study, speakers, radio, and movies, it should not conceive its function to be that of a nonsocial, nonemotional agency concerned with developing the mind of the child thru the traditional curriculum centered on assuring college entrance for the few.

In short, the school camp may well become an integral part of the youngster's year-round educational experience, which blends what is best in camping with what is best in schooling to foster democratic living.



Extending
Educational Opportunity
to New Groups

PART |||

Extending the New Curriculum to Preschool Children and Adults

The full achievement of the life we are fighting for requires universal opportunities for education from early childhood thruout life. In the years ahead there will be rapid expansion of nursery schools and adult education programs. Public education must assume leadership in effectively extending appropriate educational opportunities to young children and to adults. The concept of the school as an educational center for the entire community is developing. All effective instruments and agencies of preschool and adult education must be utilized in our striving toward a better life, a better world, and an enduring peace.

Serving the Young Child

During the war years there has been great stress upon the provision of day care for preschool children. The yearbook committee believes that this development has seldom been viewed in its proper perspective, or given adequate consideration as a significant educational advance. The conditions under which day care has been provided, and the preparatory planning which has been done in many communities represent outstanding progress in both educational planning and community cooperation.

Activities for preschool children have been closely associated with extended day care for those in school. Often the two have been regarded as a single community problem. However, the educational questions involved are quite different and justify separate treatment. Services for nursery or preschool children will be the subject of this chapter, while extended day, week, and year programs for those already in school are presented in Chapter 6.

DEMANDS FOR MORE EDUCATION

Hundreds of schools over this great land of ours are organizing educational programs for the very young child. This war has served to accelerate a movement which has a long history. In civilized societies, there has been a continuous trend toward providing schools for more of the population and for longer and longer periods of each individual's life. It is important that we recognize the nursery-school movement as a part of this tendency for social groups and whole nations, the world over, to take more and more responsibility for the complete development of all their members from infancy to old age. In this country the nursery school will gradually become an accepted part of our educational system.

Within the last one hundred years amazing changes have come to pass in the attitude of people toward the significance of early childhood in the total development of the individual. Indeed it is possible

that this emphasis upon the importance of this period has made some parents and teachers view with undue gravity and concern all behavior manifestations of young children. The war has shown the English that children can "take it" and the Russians that they can carry an amazing amount of responsibility at early ages. All of this is unmistakable evidence of a widespread interest in the growth and development of the young child. Physicians, psychiatrists, educators, preachers, priests, dictators, kings, presidents, and congressmen have all shown concern for the early experiences of the children of the nation to which they belong. There is an increasing awareness of the significance for adulthood of these early years, in the understandings, attitudes, health habits, and emotional and social development of the individual.

THE AIM OF AMERICAN LIFE

In this country we want intelligent, well-balanced, happy, socially effective people. We believe that this is an emerging universe and that change is all that we can be sure about. The only kind of society which can last is one which provides for change. It must be based upon the development of individuals who can think for themselves, who are inventive, resourceful, confident, and socially responsible citizens. It is not easy to make it possible for this type of citizen to develop.

THE PLACE OF THE NURSERY SCHOOL

Our children, then, must be provided from babyhood with the kind of living which makes them secure and confident in their ability to think their way thru problems. They must grow under conditions which insure them strong, healthy bodies. They must be able to live happily and effectively in a cooperative society. This all seems so obvious and nearly everyone accepts it. Yet we fail to realize what a tremendous task it is to educate as individuals all the children of all the people. We have fallen into many pitfalls in our previous attempts. For instance, we have copied schools in Europe, have aped the methods of business and industry, and have graded and grouped children. We have tried hard to standardize methods and materials. The nursery school is probably freest of this inherited tradition. It is to be hoped that it will remain an organization which is built upon the needs of young children with a program which provides for each child as an individual and as a member of society.

Even twenty-five years ago people would have been shocked at

the idea of putting a two-year-old in school. "Surely the worst home is better than an institution." Very rapidly the nursery school has become accepted not to replace but to supplement the home. Most young mothers find the well-trained nursery-school teacher of great help and comfort in decisions on such matters as Jane's diet problems, habits of elimination, and temper tantrums. If one goes to any good nursery school and listens to the discussions between the teachers and parents, he will be impressed with the value for the child in having deeply concerned and child-centered parents planning with an interested but more objective teacher.

PUBLIC EDUCATION AND THE NURSERY SCHOOL

Leadership in the nursery-school movement should be furnished by the public schools. Surely educators should be responsive to these newly recognized needs of young children in our society and should be eager to meet the challenge of extending the services of the school thru the establishment of programs for them. Unfortunately many school officials have been conservative and overcareful of "biting off more than they can chew." They have not only withheld leadership but have been uncooperative or absolutely indifferent toward the movement. Many have operated within a concept that school moneys are to be spent only for education of those between six and eighteen years. They have been content to let private individuals or agencies such as the WPA, the community chest, or industry sponsor and operate the nursery schools.

Schools can serve best by uniting with local groups to face co-operatively and help solve educational problems of the entire community. The community is made up of all the folks you see downtown on Saturday night: oil drillers, women pulling children along, Indians, Mexicans, farmers bunched about the hardware store, girls selling Jehovah Witness' papers, youngsters of all ages, students from the college, and professional and business people. What do they want to make life richer? What do they need? How can they be brought together to help build a better community? It is obvious that the public school has a great opportunity to unify people as they develop the most practical and culturally rich program for the children and youth of all ages.

Some say that if the schools would do well what they have contracted to do, they would be unable to take on the programs for younger children. Of course schools are busy and crowded—the new programs can only be undertaken with the addition of staff and

the utilization of the services of other agencies in the community.

The assistance of volunteers may be a valuable supplement to such a program. In Wilmington, North Carolina, the author talked with an army wife who was delighted to help with a nursery school. It was a hot day but she was working just as hard as tho she were drawing a salary. We need to dramatize teaching aides as the Red Cross has dramatized nurses' aides. We need to use the personnel of our high schools and colleges in work with young children.

HOLYOKE PROGRAM FOR CHILD DEVELOPMENT

The following story¹ illustrates the many services a college can give a community and also the value to everyone concerned in this cooperative effort.

Holyoke's industries are such that even before the war women were employed in considerable numbers. Early in the war the number of employed women began to rise sharply, and the need for augmented facilities for the care of young children was apparent. At that time there were five WPA nursery schools operated under the public-school authority, and one day-nursery directed by the Catholic Diocesan Bureau of Charities. As the need for the services of these nurseries increased, the superintendent of schools sought the help of the department of psychology and education at Mount Holyoke College to raise the standard of service provided by the WPA nursery schools.

College and City Cooperate

As a means of cooperation Mount Holyoke College offered to operate one of the WPA nursery schools as a demonstration center in association with the college wartime summer session in 1942. The college provided a highly qualified director and used the nursery as a practice and demonstration center for students. Members of the department of psychology and education gave a weekly seminar for the WPA teachers and each of these teachers was given a period of practice in the demonstration center. In association with this summer's demonstration, the first course for child-care volunteers was given in Holyoke. Many people came to see the work of the center and this proved to be the best way of interpreting the meaning of child development to lay people. In the organization of this center—making equipment, redecorating rooms and furniture, studying the behavior of children and their environments in order to provide more wisely for their requirements—college faculty and students, WPA teachers, parents, volunteers, the editor of the local paper, and other citizens worked together. The summer's achievement was an inter-

¹ Information furnished by Margaret B. McFarland, Mount Holyoke College, Holyoke, Massachusetts.

esting demonstration of the effectiveness of the coordination of effort in meeting children's needs. This was the initial cooperative undertaking of city and college in a continuing sequence of shared responsibilities and assets.

Results of Cooperative Effort

In the autumn of 1942 the community problem of providing for the children of working mothers had increased, and there was a prospect that the WPA nutrition project and nursery schools would have to close to permit extending the school services for children of five and over. Therefore application was made for Lanham Funds to help finance the care of these children. At the time that the grant was received the mayor of the city guaranteed funds for the nutrition program. Equipment for the day-care centers was provided by various groups such as the women's club, the local newspaper, a women's labor group, and the Federal Public Housing Authority. From the beginning there has been an active child-care committee made up of representatives of industry, labor, health, and social service groups, as well as the superintendent of schools and the chairman of the department of psychology and education at Mount Holyoke. The chairman of this committee was previously the president of the board of the children's aid.

Utilization of Existing Facilities

In the development of this community program there has been a consistent policy to make use of existing facilities and to develop new services to supplement these facilities whenever necessary. For instance the present children's centers have grown out of the WPA nursery schools and nutrition projects which were part of the services available in the schools before the war. The medical examinations of the nursery-school children are being given by the staff of the child welfare clinic where the attendance of preschool children had dropped sharply after young mothers began to work in the factories. The dental health program of the elementary schools has been extended downward to provide supervision for the dental health of preschool children enrolled in the children's centers. The extension of these health services seems a particularly important aspect of the program because the parents have less free time to avail themselves of the help offered by health agencies. The nutrition work of the demonstration center is being directed by the head of the home economics department in the high school as a laboratory project for students.

Day Care for School Children

In the spring of 1943 the elementary-school day was extended to include a before- and after-school recreation program as well as a mid-day dinner for the children of working mothers in areas where such service was needed. In the summer months the city operated

day camps for school-age children whose parents were employed. The day camp directors were teachers from the city schools and the assistants were in many cases students interested in working with children.

Plans for Postwar Programs

Altho it is recognized that many of the child and family services needed at present will not be needed after the war, there has been an attempt to make the whole plan sound from the point of view of the children's needs so that the present community program will serve as a basis for postwar services. For instance, after the war it is hoped that full-day care of young children will no longer be necessary, but that the children's centers may be adapted as family centers where young children may have two or three hours of wholesome play under trained teachers each day, where health clinics may be operated, where parent counseling services may be offered, where older children may go for wholesome recreational activities.

When the war is over, Holyoke, like many other cities, will have not only the experiences in providing for children gained thru the war emergency but it will also have the deepened awareness of children's needs as the postwar situation evolves.

The best contribution that the work of this war period can make toward the solution of postwar problems in child development is the demonstration of the effectiveness of the coordination of effort in constructive activities.

VALUES IN COMMUNITY COOPERATION

This last statement is very true. But it is unfortunate that it takes a war to bring groups together. This pleasure in cooperative effort was one of the striking notes in the many dockets requesting Lanham funds for nursery schools which came to the Office of Education in the administration of this program. Prince Georges County, Maryland, planned to use older school children and high-school youth in many ways. In some communities firemen had constructed and renovated toys. College students in Staunton, Virginia, had planned and painted murals in the nursery school. Women's clubs and parent-teacher societies were helping in ways too numerous to mention. They were all finding the joy of cooperative effort in a community enterprise.

The Mount Holyoke report also mentions the formation of a community child-care committee. These committees have been organized in hundreds of American communities. They are generally appointed by the local office of civilian defense. However,

they can be initiated by any individual or group in a community which sees the need. They are most effective when they include representatives from all the agencies and groups in the community, including the welfare department, the churches, labor, minority groups, the health department, and the schools. These committees are usually affiliated with the state child-care committee. In New Jersey over 150 communities had child-care committees organized by May 1943. They were organized for continuous study of all problems pertaining to children and youth in the community. Sub-committees were set up to survey continuously and report on child-care problems. The committees suggested policies and kept the public informed. They sponsored and organized training courses for volunteer workers in nursery schools. None of these committees is an operating agency. Their chief purposes are to get the data before the public, coordinate the services of the agencies, study local resources, and promote the program which has been decided upon.

Educators should do everything to encourage these committees and to keep them working on practical problems. After the war it would be splendid to continue them as study and advisory organizations. It has been interesting to see how school administrators and boards of education have reacted to these child-care committees. Most educators have recognized the possibilities and have joined the committee and contributed to it. Some, of course, have been fearful of the interference in school affairs.

SPECIAL PROBLEMS IN LONG BEACH

Long Beach, California, met its problem of child care as early as any American community.² The first nursery school was set up during the Christmas holidays, 1941, to help the widows of Pearl Harbor who were living in the navy housing project.

The supervisor of parent education in the adult education department of the public schools had for some time previous to Pearl Harbor been meeting with the navy mothers of preschool children. Many of these mothers lost their husbands in the Pearl Harbor disaster and it was quite natural that they should turn to this supervisor for advice and help. Since the mothers living in the navy housing project belonged to the low income group and it would be necessary for them to go to work if they were not to be put on relief, the need for day care of their children was evident.

² Materials submitted by Maud Wilson Dunn, coordinator, curriculum and child welfare department, public schools, Long Beach, California.

Cooperative Development of the Preschool Program

The supervisor of parent education set up a committee to organize a nursery school. This committee was composed of mothers, the manager of the navy housing project, both the state and the district supervisors of the WPA nursery schools, a representative from the USO, and the supervisor of parent education. The manager of the navy housing project offered a double bungalow for the nursery school, which at that time was being used as the navy wives' club-room. A Vassar College graduate and a graduate from the Iowa Child Welfare Center were employed as teachers in the newly organized nursery school. Ten local organizations contributed funds to buy equipment and supplies not available thru the WPA such as a fence, toys, and quilts.

While this organization of the school was under way, the supervisor of parent education helped in obtaining training and employment for those mothers who needed to go to work. Later, thru the contributions of about three hundred Southern California citizens, a new building was erected for a nursery school on the grounds of the navy housing project.

Expansion To Meet New Needs

At the present time, five additional nursery schools are planned, to be located in various parts of the city where mothers called upon to help in the war effort may place their children while at work. These will be financed by Lanham Act funds, as is the present one. These schools with educational backing and standards have also the objective that fatherless children will be well cared for during the day in order that they may become worthy citizens.

One woman said that the experience of losing her husband in the Pearl Harbor disaster had made her unfit to be with her children, that the children would be better off in a nursery school, but that she would have to go to work if she wished to place them in such a school.

Another woman said she and her husband came west to find work, since they were in danger of losing their home in the Middlewest. If they both worked they could save their home and when the war was over, return to it. However, the supervisor of parent education was able to bring the mother to see that unless provision was made for the children while she worked, she might save her home but lose her children.

PLANNING FOR THE FUTURE

As a result of war conditions many mothers will want help in caring for their children. These mothers need the counseling service which a good nursery school provides. These schools in Long Beach, while financed by federal funds under the Lanham Act, were still very much a community enterprise. It is important to stress this fact. Many communities have been so suddenly overwhelmed that they cannot in the emergency provide facilities for the children. Federal funds are available but the greatest care should be taken to develop local leadership and planning. If this is not done, no matter how good the nursery school, when federal funds are stopped, the whole project stops, too.

CONTRIBUTIONS OF VOLUNTEER HELP

The nursery school is expensive when compared to the cost of other school programs. The pupil-teacher load must be much smaller as the children are dependent upon adults for the fulfilment of many needs. However, if countries like England and Russia can manage to maintain large numbers of nursery schools, we should be able to do so. Practical suggestions for cutting the expenses are being found thru experience in all parts of the country. The older elementary-school children and certainly the high-school youth are participating with mutual benefits to the young and older children. Scouts are bringing the children to school and taking them home. Grade-school children help the young children remove and put on wraps, assist in serving the meals, make toys, help with the care of materials. All of this reduces the expenses of the janitor or maid. In New Jersey special child-care training courses are being worked out for high-school students. Unemployed women volunteers are helping in many communities. There are vast untouched resources in volunteer assistants in every community.

Part of the difficulty in utilizing volunteer help is that some nursery-school teachers do not want or know how to work with these adult volunteers and children. They have been trained in universities and colleges where the training for teaching in a nursery school is set and rigid. The teacher emerges with fixed notions of "the" schedule or "the" way to handle nail biting. They are too serious about the details of the job and often have no real joy in the work. Nursery-school teachers of this type frighten the public away. They even make other schoolteachers feel that they are outside a mysterious order. They are especially resistant to the kindergarten

teachers. This, of course, is human—a relatively new program is seeking status. Teacher-educating institutions should especially stress the need on the part of the teacher for studying and utilizing the community resources and the building of a program for young children which the particular community needs and can support.

WHEN MOTHERS GO TO WAR PLANTS

For nine years, the Kalamazoo Board of Education³ has sponsored nursery schools under the FERA and WPA programs for children of low income families. Resources available to almost any community wishing to establish nursery schools have been utilized. With the increased employment of women in war industry, the emphasis gradually shifted in the summer of 1942 to providing care for children of employed mothers. There were five nursery schools functioning during this time, three located in public-school buildings, one in a large cottage owned by the board of education, and one in the spacious and modern Douglass Community Center convenient to the Negro population. With the assistance of Lanham funds, these five centers are continuing to operate with lengthened hours better to meet the needs of the patrons, and a new unit is opening in a commodious church house convenient to the downtown area.

Survey Establishes Need

The need for these nursery schools was established by two local surveys. In June 1942 a committee was appointed by the chairman of the child welfare committee of the Council of Social Agencies, to investigate the need for extended day care of children and the possibility of meeting this need thru existing community agencies. Questionnaires distributed thru school children and in some of the industries, revealed that the situation was not critical at the time, but the personnel managers in industry and officials in the United States Employment Service believed that the picture would change considerably within a few months. Another survey in December confirmed this prediction and the child welfare committee then made three recommendations: that the office of civilian defense appoint a permanent committee on the care of children of working mothers, that a system of approved foster homes for day care of children be established, and that the board of education apply for Lanham Act funds to assure the continuance of the nursery schools.

³ Information provided by Mary Agnes McGrail, supervisor, Kalamazoo Nursery Schools, and D. J. Heathcote, director of coordinate activities, public schools, Kalamazoo, Michigan.

These recommendations were carried out. Applications for Lanhams funds were filed by the board of education and were received on May 13, 1943. The director of the Kalamazoo County Council on Civilian Defense appointed a committee composed of representatives of all the community agencies interested in the care of children of working mothers. Among others, this included the department of health, community centers, parent-teacher associations, recreation groups, the board of education, labor organizations, social agencies, churches, and industries.

Counseling Service for Working Mothers

One of the first activities of the new committee was to establish a child-care service center. The center is open three afternoons and evenings a week and is staffed by trained case workers representing several child-care agencies. These workers give free counseling service to all working mothers and prospective working mothers who apply for assistance in the care of their children. Thru this service, many mothers have been encouraged to remain at home when their absence appeared to be detrimental to the best interests of the children. As a general policy, hasty planning is discouraged and the welfare of the children is given priority over other considerations. The center handles all applications for nursery schools and foster day-care services, and investigates and registers foster day homes.

Schools Are Carefully Staffed and Equipped

Each nursery school is equipped to care for thirty or more children with ages ranging from two to five and one-half years. There is a full-time supervisor in charge of the program. The size of the staff varies with the number of hours a school is operating and with the size of the enrolment. The staff in an average school consists of a head teacher, two assistants, a part-time nurse, and a cook. In the units not located in public-school buildings, a part-time janitor is also employed. Volunteer workers supplement this staff. The program follows the usual nursery-school day excepting that provision is made for extra snacks and rests due to the lengthened hours. Fees, based on the number of hours and days of service, range from \$3 to \$4.20 per week.

Older Children Assist

There is much coordination of work with the elementary-grade children. In one school, where there is a great deal of equipment to

move between lunch and the rest period, sixth graders gladly lend a helping hand. In another center, the boys in the shop classes mend and paint broken toys. Safety patrol boys in another unit have charge of the outdoor play equipment, setting it up in the morning and bringing it in at the close of the day. These older children feel that they are contributing to the war effort thru serving the nursery-school children. Girl Scouts, Girl Reserves, and Junior Red Cross members make their contribution by regular volunteer service before and after school hours. They assist the nursery-school personnel in routine duties and find time to make quilts, toys, scrapbooks, and other helpful materials.

These units serve as observation and participation centers for the child-care volunteer courses sponsored by the office of civilian defense. The courses recruit and train volunteers as foster day mothers, recreation leaders, assistants in child welfare clinics, and helpers in nursery-school groups. Students in nursery education at the Western Michigan College of Education observe in all the nursery schools as part of their training course.

COLORADO SPRINGS

Colorado Springs, Colorado, child-care center, under the sponsorship of the board of education with the help of the superintendent of schools, was founded in May 1943.⁴ Because of the military camps located near by, the city was declared to be a defense area and a community survey taken earlier in the year revealed a definite need for day care of children of mothers who had taken employment.

The new program absorbed the WPA nursery schools when they were liquidated and initiated the extended school program early in June at the closing of the city schools, thus providing day care for children between the ages of two and twelve years.

Three centers were opened. Two of the three centers were located in public-school buildings and the third one in a church building in the Negro district. The present enrolment is approximately 110 pupils of all ages and the prospects are that a fourth center will be opened in the near future in a section of the city not now served.

The physical well-being of the child is protected thru physical examinations, daily inspection, an immunization program, rest and sleep periods, wholesome recreational facilities, safe, sanitary, and hygienic housing facilities, and a well-balanced, nutritious noon meal supplemented with morning and afternoon lunches.

The centers provide care for children from 7:00 A.M. to 7:00 P.M. six days each week in a friendly environment. The day is filled with interesting activities and natural experiences under the guidance and

⁴ Statement furnished by Roy J. Wasson, superintendent of schools, Colorado Springs, Colorado.

companionship of specially trained and experienced teachers who not only understand children but maintain standards of child guidance and provide group living experiences as well as care of individual needs.

Program Planned in Terms of Needs

For the children of all ages the program provides an active and happy day in which children develop wholesome attitudes and learn to make proper social adjustments. The program for the preschool child includes free and organized play periods both indoors and outdoors, a story hour, music and rhythm experiences, creative experiences, and short trips. The school-age child has a day filled with recreational activities, games and sports, nature experiences, interesting trips, recreative reading, dramatics, music, rhythm, rest, art, and handicraft experiences.

Notes and records of the child's behaviorisms, progress, and development are kept as means of understanding the individual child and as guides in planning for consultations between the teachers and parents.

Centers Aid in Teacher Education

The centers are used as laboratories for students enrolled in Colorado College who are specializing in the field of child development. These students observe the program and assist in the care of children certain hours during the day. The city-county health unit, the tuberculosis association, and the welfare organizations cooperate in the program. Thru the city-county health unit an immunization program is offered and individual cases are referred to the pediatric clinic. Likewise children are recommended for enrolment in the centers. The Tuberculosis Association provided teachers with chest x-rays. Children whose mothers are in the lower wage bracket have been assisted by the welfare agencies and it is thru this organization, in some instances, that closer family relationships have been maintained.

The local fee charged parents of enrolled children is thirty-five cents a day for the purpose of covering the cost of food served. Cooks and housekeepers are provided in each of the centers. The school facilities are furnished by the board of education. These include the building space, with the exception of the church mentioned, and the utilities and custodial help.

FOUR SERVICES OF A NURSERY SCHOOL

Program for Children of Working Mothers

At present the chief problem in the nursery-school movement is to provide an educational program for the children of the employed

mother. In the future this will be only one of the services of the nursery school. It will always be an important service because the trend for employment of women outside the home had steadily increased even before the war. There will always be mothers who have to work. It may be necessary to furnish twenty-four-hour service to take care of the children whose mothers are on night shifts. Whatever needs to be done for the children must be done. However, there should be an efficient counseling and investigation service to decide upon each case and admit only those children to the night care or the eight-hour day care who need it. Also there should be regulations or pressures developed to the effect that the children of working mothers are either placed in nursery schools or in approved foster homes.

Meeting the Needs of Individuals

There is a second type of service which the schools should prepare to give. Young children, whose mothers do not work outside the home, often need the stimulus of playmates their own ages. Also, they can profit greatly from the environment which is planned for them. There should be a variety of plans possible for this group. Each child's home conditions should be studied and the type of program he needs arranged. Some children whose homes are small and in congested areas with no safe outdoor play space could come every day for four to six hours. Or if there is illness in the family, and the child is not having an opportunity for happy vigorous play, he could be admitted on a daily basis for as long as the emergency lasts. If the child from the average home came to the nursery school two or three mornings or afternoons a week, he would get the stimulus of play with children his own age. He would get all the physical and psychological examinations by specialists and the parents would have the guidance and suggestions of the nursery-school teacher. Mothers could use the free mornings to shop, read, sew, or as one mother of five vigorous children said with deep feeling, "just to catch up on some sleep." Anyone who has tried to do housework and keep a two-and-a-half-year-old knows what this rest would mean. The mother will in all probability be a much more composed person if she has a little time each week to herself.

Some nursery-school leaders may object to this plan as lacking in the routine which is healthy and gives a child a sense of security. In the writer's opinion this emphasis on the part of nursery-school teachers on habit and routine has been too great. The child gets his

security in the confidence he has in adults. First he must sense the friendship between his mother and the teacher. Then as he enjoys the play with other children and the toys and equipment, he learns to look forward to the days he has in school. Observation of afternoon play groups for two- to four-year-olds who come only twice a week, leads to the conclusion that attending twice a week is enough for some children. They get many new meanings, new ideas for play, and have time to digest them. At least it seems very much easier for them to make their adjustment to the school, especially if they are shy and timid.

In experimental laboratory schools where one of the purposes is to give college students a chance to observe the eating, sleeping, eliminating, and playing habits of children, it may be necessary for the children to stay all day. There has never seemed to be any other good reason in having all the children stay for the afternoon naps. There are children whose mothers may want the assistance of a nursery-school teacher in seeing that the child learns to take a needed nap. But for the entire group to stay and learn to sleep for one to two hours in a room with fifteen to thirty others does not seem very sensible. There is nothing socializing about sleeping. The great majority of children need only the half-day session from 9 to 12 or from 2 to 5. In this way one center can be of service to many more children. It should be possible for a three-teacher center to serve at least seventy children and never have more than twenty-five present at once.

Consultation for Play Group Directors

A third service the public-school nursery-school center should render is a consultation service for play groups in certain homes in the community. In many cities and towns, groups of parents are now cooperating to provide neighborhood play groups for young children. The parents rotate the care of the children for a week or month. These groups, which generally last just half of each day, are sometimes started because the mothers realize the children need to play with each other. Other times they are started as a convenience—making it possible for the free mothers to shop or clean house. It would be splendid if the mothers felt they could call on the nursery-school staff for suggestions on equipment, diet lists, and the guidance of children. The health inspections might be made by the same service used by the school. One of the staff of the nursery-school teachers might be sent to the neighborhood groups at certain inter-

vals to help the mothers with their program—and, of course, parents would be invited to the nursery-school center to observe and visit.

Clinical and Guidance Service for Children

A fourth service of the public-school nursery-school center should be a consultation service for individual children. On certain days each week the community would know that the school health service, psychologists, and a nursery-school teacher would be available for conferences on problems concerning children. In metropolitan areas this clinic or consultation service would need to be open certain hours daily. A nursery-school teacher who watches a child as he manipulates toys, uses the large muscle equipment, or comes into conflict with other children, can give a pediatrician help that is most valuable in the diagnosis and treatment of the child.

EXTENSION OF NURSERY-SCHOOL PROGRAMS

In the years ahead there will be a rapid expansion in the number of nursery schools and in the types of services which they will be asked to render to the community. More and more parents are seeing the results in the intellectual, social, and physical development of the children who have had the opportunity to attend a good nursery school where they are stimulated by children of their own ages, where they have equipment specially suited to their growth needs, and where they are under the guidance of specialists. Also, the rapid industrialization of our communities, and the vast number of mothers who are working, point to the necessity for the nursery school as a supplement to the home. It is important for schools to realize this and to give their leadership and guidance in order that this program for the education of the young child may develop as an integral part of our American school system.

9

Providing Educational Opportunity for Adults

One of the remarkable educational developments of the past decade is the adult education movement. With a long history of service to varied groups, the depression and war years have brought education for adults to its deserved place as an integral part of the over-all pattern of education in America. Changing social, economic, and vocational conditions have made reeducation essential for the continued welfare of large segments of the adult population. The increasing leisure, which characterizes peacetime living, makes organized education for adults not only possible but also desirable as a full-time activity.

However, the widespread support given to adult education is to a great extent merely a recognition of potential power and usefulness. The possibilities inherent in well-coordinated, soundly supported programs are still to be attained. The methods and means of working with adults, and aiding them to help themselves, have been only partially explored. This indeed is a new curriculum area in which opportunities will continue to be extended in the years ahead.

THE SCHOOL'S ROLE IN COMMUNITY EDUCATION

In war or in peace our public educational system should be a means thru which basic human needs are satisfied. At the community level the school should operate as an agency which helps both children and adults. Culturally as well as economically the living standards of the community may thus be raised. In the degree to which the staff, equipment, facilities, plant, and influence of the school are used in helping all those who are members of the school community to unlock the doors which bar their way to a richer, fuller, more satisfying life—to that extent the school achieves its prime purpose

and justifies its position as a main cornerstone of the democratic way of life.

The purpose of this chapter is to describe and to analyze some of the ways in which a few American communities are attempting to measure up to this standard of service in the extension of educational opportunities to adults. The fundamental assumption which has been made as to the role of the school can be validated best by the rather generous use of illustrative material drawn from the record of public educational agencies in extending services to adults. On the basis of these reports some analysis can be made of trends and developments. Some of the programs described are admitted to be unusual, but most of them, with slight modifications and changes in detail, have their counterpart elsewhere.

APPLES AND ADULT EDUCATION

Chelan, Washington, is a town in the heart of the apple country and it doesn't take a lawyer to figure out that fact from the report of the school's program of community education.¹

No school ever did a finer job of community cooperation. The whole school is geared to the apple industry. Our time schedule, our curriculum, our activities in the school and out of it are all determined by the community's business. The school is headquarters for everything—hiring, transporting, housing, feeding of workers. It is really an elaborate labor bureau. Local labor is trained thru packing schools, sorting schools, classes for foremen, and Spanish classes for those who deal with the incoming Mexicans.

During apple harvest formal school classes will take a vacation. The Mexicans will be housed in our huge gymnasium. Careful plans are made to care for their social and religious life. Probably the school auditorium will be used for church services, as no church in town is large enough. Tho this is a busy season, I saw thirty or forty cars in front of the high school last night—night school! Adult education in an emergency!

Approximately 10 percent of Chelan's school district population was enrolled in night classes during 1940-41. Instruction was given in a dozen fields: naturalization, farm shops, dancing, physical education, radio, public forum, music, stenography, typing, bookkeeping, dramatics, photography, and English. Popular courses, for a five-year period, have been photography, radio, and physical education for men. The draft and transportation difficulties have made a drastic cut in the night-school attendance.

Farm machinery is repaired at the school. A clinic there tests milk, seeds, livestock, and crops. Students and ranchers are studying how

¹ Information supplied by Mrs. L. O. Anderson, president, Pacific Northwest Association for Adult Education, and member of the Chelan school staff.

to spray, so all fruit will not ripen simultaneously, how to grow firmer and yet crisp apples, and to develop smaller, better trees. This involves technical problems of spacing, pruning, and selection of the right varieties.

Adults and students are sharing community problems. Together, they are specializing in victory gardens. Last year, the Chelan School distributed over a ton of soybeans. Most of the beans were raised in the school gardens. Tests are now being made to determine best varieties of range grass, sweet corn, tomatoes, and other vegetables. Tested seed is being supplied local gardeners for this year's crop.

Adult education is the key to many community and world problems. It can help end chaos and build the new world order.

AMERICANS ALL

Approximately 5,000,000 aliens registered in this country as required by the Alien Registration Act of 1940. About 700,000 signed their names with a cross.

Springfield, Massachusetts, proposes to do something about the problem in that community thru its public schools.² Factory classes have been established in four defense plants in Springfield. These serve not only for instruction in English and citizenship, but also as consulting centers for persons who need answers to a thousand and one questions regarding their citizenship. The classification of the pupils in the adult alien education classes is of particular interest. Literates are in separate classes from illiterates, and each classification has its level of ability. There are not only beginning, intermediate, and advanced groups, but also low, medium, and high classes in each of the first two groups. A person may move from one class to another whenever his ability warrants. Another interesting angle of the classification is the fact that, altho the meaning of good citizenship is stressed in all groups, those persons who have filed final papers are in groups where definite instruction is given to help them pass the citizenship examination.

The instruction is based on subjects and problems of adult interest. Reading is taught with books in which public signs are employed as the basis of practical stories. The discussion method is used and timely topics are introduced each evening. The students are encouraged to talk. This is of great importance in giving them confidence in the use of English.

No writing is done unless it has immediate value, such as filling

² Information supplied by Alice L. Halligan, acting director, bureau of guidance, placement, and adult education, Springfield public schools; and Lura H. McDavitt, principal, evening elementary adult school.

out personal information cards and various other forms. However, the writing of necessary letters is taught.

Visual education is employed at all times. Pictures, signs, and the use of silent and sound movies make lessons much more effective.

Any subject will be taught for which a need is expressed. For example, at one of the largest day centers, twenty-eight women secured home nursing certificates while carrying on their regular program. Other groups attended demonstration cooking schools conducted by the staff of the local electric company. Each year a new phase of work is stressed in order to encourage those who have secured their citizenship papers to continue their attendance in school.

In addition to the program of alien education, the adult education bureau of the Springfield schools operates an evening adult school and an adult trade school, offers a winter and summer forum series in cooperation with the Springfield Adult Education Council, works with the League of Women Voters in sponsoring nonpartisan political meetings, and cooperates with the parent-teacher association in a program of discussion group meetings on problems of group living in the home and in the larger community.

The director of one of the outstanding adult schools in the United States in San Jose, California, reports a program of citizenship education operating thru two immigrant centers. The objective is adjusted relations between immigrant and community and between foreign-born parent and American-born child. Five full-time visiting teachers are employed to carry on educational work in the homes and two civic organizations have been formed for naturalized citizens.

PARENTS, TOO, ARE ADULTS

The Pasadena, California, city schools serve the needs of parents in the community thru a program of study groups, panel discussions, health conference work (well baby clinics), and play groups.³ The study groups, enrolling from fifteen to fifty parents, frequently meet thruout the school year and are organized in cooperation with schools, parent-teacher associations, churches, and clubs. The discussion method is used in the meetings. For larger groups and communitywide meetings panel discussions are used with teachers, school administrators, and parents participating. In cooperation with the city health department, preschool conferences (well baby clinics)

³ Materials supplied by Pauline Gartzmann, teacher of parent education, department of adult education, Pasadena city schools.

have been scheduled weekly as a means of giving guidance to parents in establishing and maintaining the health of young children. The play group is a method of parent education which offers parents the opportunity of studying their preschool children in a play situation under the direction of competent leaders. Each group meets weekly on a school playground or in a park usually from 9:00 to 12:00.

Leadership for the programs is made up in part from certificated, paid members of the adult education staff and in part from volunteer lists of lay leaders who are willing to prepare themselves for participation in the program.⁴

TAKING THE MOUNTAIN TO MAHOMET

In 1939 Charlotte County, Virginia, built a consolidated high school which took over the work that seven small high schools in the county had formerly done. The old high-school buildings were to be used as elementary schools, but the superintendent of schools saw in the reorganization of the school system a chance to increase the service to his people in the field of adult education. He made plans for adult classes in each of the old high-school buildings. Teachers from the consolidated high school were made available wherever as many as ten persons expressed an interest in a subject. More than six hundred adults enrolled in the first nine weeks' series of courses, including music, handicraft, religious education, home economics, and home nursing. The superintendent took his new high school to the people and, until gas rationing changed the picture, brought the people from the neighborhood schools to the consolidated school once each month for the discussion of countywide problems and for cooperative work with representatives of the private and governmental agencies doing work in the county. A social hour concluded each of the meetings.⁵

COMMUNITY EDUCATION IN THE EMPIRE STATE

The public schools of Schenectady, New York, have provided personnel, office space, supplies, and advisory assistance in the opera-

⁴ For additional details about the Pasadena program consult Pasadena Junior College Publications Committee. *Play Groups*. Pasadena, Calif.: Pasadena City Schools, 1943.

Pasadena City Schools. *Parent Education—A City School Program*. Pasadena, Calif.: Pasadena City Schools, 1936.

⁵ Material taken from correspondence with F. O. Wygal, supervisor of adult education, state department of education, Richmond, Virginia, and from University of Virginia Extension Division. *New Plans for Old Programs*. New Dominion Series, Leaflet No. 2. Charlottesville: University of Virginia. Thirty-four of these leaflets describing school-initiated programs of community education and improvement had been made available by July 15, 1943. They are distributed free. See also Nisonger, H. W. *The Role of the School in Community Education*. Bureau of Special and Adult Education. Columbus: Ohio State University, 1940.

tion of a community, citizen unity program which does one of the most complete jobs of community coverage in the country. The citizen unity committee began functioning in November 1942, and incorporated within its program the work of the Schenectady County war council's morale committee. School leaders have been active in the work of the committee which represents all the important agencies and groups in the community.⁶

Subcommittees, aided by volunteer workers, were in charge of the specific activities. Even a partial list of these activities indicates the breadth and scope of the program.

1. During the year the speakers' bureau arranged for 345 meetings with a total attendance of 37,695 persons. In addition, 60 showings of war films were scheduled. The costs of this program were paid for by the board of education.

2. A discussion leaders' training course was offered in cooperation with the League of Women Voters.

3. A war information bureau was operated by volunteer workers to help in getting answers to questions dealing with the war effort.

4. A rumor clinic was organized to trace down unsubstantiated stories which might undermine civilian morale.

5. Radio programs were staged, including a Union College round-table series, particularly for the 40,000 citizens of Slavic origin in the community.

6. Cooperation with the Schenectady Civic Youth Council deserves special mention. In addition to the one in Schenectady, such councils are operating in Solvay, Syracuse, Utica, and other centers. Representatives of these councils met in the first statewide conference at Syracuse in 1942.⁷ These councils operate to represent young adults of all nationalities, creeds, and colors. They invite youth to play a leading part in planning and doing. The program suggests to youth that they serve the community rather than be served and youth likes it. Above all, it treats youth as adult citizens—it welcomes new partners in democratic life and government, it gives youth dignity, and status.⁸

⁶ Information supplied by John W. Herring, state education department, Albany, N. Y. See also *Annual Report of the Citizens Unity Committee*, May 31, 1943. Schenectady, N. Y.: Joseph Czyzewski, secretary. (Mimeo.)

⁷ First New York State Youth Conference. *Proceedings*. 1942. Syracuse, N. Y.: Maxwell School of Citizenship.

⁸ Herring, John W. "The Youth Services of the New Deal and Future Action." *Social Education* 7: 51-57; February 1943.

FORTY-THREE YEARS AND SIXTY DAYS

Kalamazoo, Michigan, schools have extended educational opportunities to adults for forty-three years and today offer a program which has behind it the experience and planning of long years of effort. Sixty days ago, from the date of this writing, a new town began to take shape in the Wisconsin River valley near Prairie du Sac, Wisconsin. By the time this material is in print the new community, called Badger, Wisconsin, will have grown from 700 persons to between 1500 and 2000. All the people who live in this new town will belong to families, some member of which is employed at a nearby war plant. The houses will be new, there will be a combination school and community center, and a business block. The nursery school will operate on a twenty-four-hour schedule, seven days a week, and there will be an extended school service program paid for in large part out of federal funds. No greater contrast in social conditions, needs, and resources could be found than is represented in the story of these two communities, one with a history of long service in the field of adult education, the other with a challenge and an opportunity to bring paper plans into reality.

The Kalamazoo public evening school has changed during the many years of its existence.⁹ At one time, half of its enrolment was made up of foreign-born adults studying elementary English and naturalization. At the present time, the services to these groups occupy not more than 6 or 7 percent of the total program. A recent survey shows that the average age of adults who participate in the current program is twenty-five years and six months, ranging from seventeen years to sixty-nine years of age. Of 836 adults selected at random, 112 quit school before completing the eighth grade, 485 were in high school at the time they left school, 247 had graduated from the twelfth grade, 174 had attended college for an average of two years, sixty-five had graduated with degrees from colleges, and fifteen persons held two or more university degrees.

In 1940, 2444 adults enrolled in classes ranging in interest and content from automotive maintenance to philosophy, or from livestock raising to personality development. There were workshops for artists, a chorus, and an orchestra. The needs of the people were

⁹ Material used in this section was supplied by D. J. Heathcote, director of coordinate activities, Kalamazoo public schools.

For a stimulating report of a community education program in a rural Michigan community see Schutt, George. *Schools Awake—A Cooperative Community Program in Van Buren County, Michigan*. Paw Paw, Mich.: the author.

varied—so was the program. Mr. Heathcote has this to say about the changes now taking place:

These changes parallel the trends in community and national life. The theme of the offerings in 1940 was: For The Common Defense of Our Homes, Occupations, Ideals, Freedom, Peaceful Living, Free Enterprise, Rugged Health, Pursuit of Happiness, the American Way.

In the following year the appeal was made on the basis: You are a link in the chain of preparedness. Strengthen that link in the Kalamazoo public evening school.

Really four great institutions pour their energies into this program. Western Michigan College, Kalamazoo College, and Nazareth College cooperate with the board of education to give our city its varied program of adult education. Every adult in Kalamazoo feels the impact of war. Industry hums on defense goods. Farms plan to raise more food for freedom. Youth are called to the colors. Classes are planned not for the leisure hours but for the serious business of preparing for a fighting job.

Such a program is not expensive. The instructional costs for 1940 totaled \$6931, of which all but \$3138 was made up from the \$1 per term registration fee and federal and state reimbursement.

Much of the program operates under cooperative relationships with civic agencies as Mr. Heathcote indicates.

In the same manner that the community looks to the school administrators for leadership in providing the educational program for children and youth, so does the community look to the same group for leadership in developing a community education program for adults. These administrators are chosen because of their understanding, vision, and ability in the field of education. No other person or group stands in such a strategic position in the community or commands the respect and confidence of the patrons. Assisted by representative laymen, who serve in an advisory capacity, the administrator is able to discover the wants of the community and to select for fulfillment those needs in which he can secure the proper leadership and facilities.

The school is like a community service station rendering service to adults who want help—help to understand the problems now facing them, whether these problems are social, economic, political, personal, or global; help to make things, help to do things, help to acquire things, help to develop new skills and to try out abilities in new fields, help to train for an occupation and to retrain when necessary for some other vocation, help to rehabilitate.

For a contrast, consider the little town of Badger, Wisconsin, which was mentioned earlier. There are both advantages and dis-

advantages in starting from scratch. Teachers for the elementary-school program as well as for the extended school service program are being selected in terms of special abilities for use in an adult education program.

The superintendent of the Badger schools says:

For example, the librarian is expected to conduct the work relative to her department for the adults as well as for the elementary school. The dramatics teacher is expected to help in the dramatic productions, both in school and in the adult program. The music teacher will organize community choruses, glee clubs, orchestras, or any other organizations which the tenants have the ability and desire to take part in. The physical education teacher will organize Boy Scouts, a full community recreational program for the children and adults at Badger Village. The arts and crafts teacher will develop programs to take care of the interest of the adults in activities relating to these fields. . . . Their task is both easy and difficult. Easy, because pressure groups are not present, the tenants come from a great number of areas, are not acquainted, old traditions are not present, the entire community is within the boundaries of thirty-eight acres. Difficult, in that the traditional community enterprises and societies are not present. In other words, the entire social structure of the community must be developed from the grass roots.¹⁰

The school will of necessity be the center for all organized community activities. A tenant organization with subcommittees on recreational activities, religious affairs, library and reading room, and others, will have responsibility for guiding the community development, but the superintendent of schools will be the focal point for clearing and directing these various functions. Plans are already under way to offer a leisure-time program with forums and discussion groups, folk dancing, and such other activities as the citizens' committee may prepare.

REVIVAL OF THE CRACKER-BARREL

The supervisor of adult education in the Connecticut State Department of Education reports as one of the outstanding efforts in adult education in that state the Seymour-War Institute.

Conceived by the superintendent of schools and the local board of education, the Seymour (Pop. 7000) plan attracted many superintendents of schools from other towns and much favorable attention. Its cost was negligible, its local publicity terrific, and its results most satisfactory.

¹⁰ Taken from correspondence with C. J. Krumm, superintendent of schools, Badger, Wisconsin.

This institute was opened with a panel discussion in the high school auditorium on the theme of the institute, *What Kind of a World Are We Trying to Make?*, with sub-topics suggested for debate. A cracker-barrel for the speakers' table indicated the informality and the type of discussion. The speakers were four representatives of Yale University and one prominent New Haven attorney. All of the teachers in the public schools of the town, the high school students, and the citizens were invited. Questions were solicited from the audience.

On the next day from 9:00 to 10:20 A.M., five public discussion groups led by chairmen selected from other towns, discussed post-war phases of industrial, international, civic, and social problems. Following an intermission from 10:20 to 10:45, when refreshments were in order, five more discussion groups on similar problems operated from 10:50 to 12:10 P.M. A teacher assigned to each group reported its conclusions to a combined summary session in the auditorium from 12:15 to 1:15 P.M.

All the public schools in the town were closed, the public was invited, and all teachers and the two upper classes in the high school were required to attend. The attendance of the public at these sessions was not entirely satisfactory owing to the hours of work and the gasoline shortage, but the publicity in the newspapers was excellent. It was agreed that the institute should be an annual event.¹¹

GETTING ON WITH THE JOB OF COMMUNITY EDUCATION

It is apparent even from these brief descriptions of what some school communities are doing to extend educational opportunities to adults (and the story of such efforts might be continued for many more pages) that the concept of the school as an educational center for the whole community has already received widespread application. The purpose here, as stated earlier, is to present such practices and to discover trends, problems, and possibilities for the extension of such programs. These can be discussed under four heads.

Administration and Financial Support of Public Adult Education

If we think of public adult education as an extension of the services of the public schools, it is apparent that, administratively, responsibility for the program must be centered in the board of education and its chief executive, the superintendent of schools, or, by this token, more accurately titled the superintendent of education for the community. What is not sometimes understood, however, is the corollary of this statement; namely, that this responsibility of the

¹¹ For reports on other community education programs, particularly as these have been affected by the war, see current issues of the *Adult Education Bulletin*, especially February and August 1943. See also *Adult Education Journal*, January 1943, on "Adult Education in Wartime."

superintendent must be shared and partially assumed by other administrative and supervising officers in the school system and by the classroom teachers. Only in the larger communities is it feasible at this stage to employ a full-time director of adult education with a specially trained staff to conduct the program and even in such cases the close cooperation of other school staff officers and teachers is essential to a successful program.¹² Many of the programs described in this section of the yearbook operate in small communities and the elementary-school principal, the social studies teacher, the football coach, and the music teacher must help to carry the load if the school is to serve the needs of all the people. Many schools are learning to use a wide range of community resources.

This is not to suggest that the school should be, or can be, the only agency in the community which has a responsibility for adult education. Adult learning can and does take place in all kinds of situations which are completely unrelated to the school, and the idea that the school has vested interests in this field should be unequivocally denied by the fact that inadequate efforts have thus far been made to provide needed educational opportunities. Two points need to be stressed with reference to this problem. First, the public-school system does blanket the land and, if it functioned as it could in the field of adult education, no hamlet or village would be without opportunity. Moreover, the schools can be held responsible to the public and made to serve all, regardless of race, creed, color, or class. Second, this is not an either-or proposition. We need all the learning opportunities which private and public agencies of education can provide. The problem is one of coordination and community planning in order that efforts will not be wasted in duplication of service and program.¹³

The Michigan Council on Adult Education adopted the following resolution at its regular meeting on September 22, 1943:

The responsibility of initiating and facilitating a local adult education program rests with the board of education, with the assistance

¹² Hendrickson, Andrew. *Trends in Public School Adult Education in Cities of the United States 1929-1939*. Reports as a growing practice the appointment by boards of education of a separate administrative head for adult education with the title, director of adult education or supervisor of adult education. This study, now in press, is being published by Edwards Brothers, Ann Arbor, Michigan.

¹³ A report from H. M. Genskow, director, Shorewood Opportunity School, Shorewood, Wisconsin, illustrates the opportunities for adult-school leadership in projects involving cooperation of other community agencies. The progress of the Shorewood school, which has been described in professional journals several times as a model adult program, now includes cooperative relationships with the civilian defense council in offering training courses, with the Milwaukee County Committee for Lasting Peace in promoting the study and discussion of post-war problems, with the women's club in the scheduling of nutrition courses, and with the junior league in the script-writing and production of radio programs over a Milwaukee station.

of the community. Such a program might be promoted by a community advisory council with representatives from the board of education and other interested groups.

There seems little doubt that, without adequate provision for financial support, public adult education cannot provide the kind of community service which is demonstrated in the programs described earlier in this section. This is true despite the fact that in many communities, school staffs are making a superlative effort to provide such service with little, if any, money available in the regular budget of the school.

Public moneys for adult education must come from the local school district, the state, or the federal government. In a tabulation of the estimated sources of moneys for adult education in 287 different Michigan school districts for the year 1942-43, Ponitz reports that the greatest single source of funds was the state board of control for vocational education; 242 schools reporting indicated that 48.5 percent would come from this source; 198 schools reporting indicated that 36.4 percent of their expenditures would come thru local boards of education.

The Pennsylvania program of extension education, as adult education is legally known in that state, is unique in some respects in its system of financial support and may indicate the direction in which other states may move to insure an adequate adult program under school auspices.

Adult education is by law an integral part of the state program of free public instruction and all appropriate legislation regulating the day public schools of the commonwealth is equally applicable to the administration of public adult education activities.

State aid, equivalent to that given the day schools of the commonwealth, is provided for all public adult education activities whether instructional, recreational, or social, ranging from 25 percent of the minimum salary of teachers and leaders in our largest and wealthiest school districts to 75 percent of the minimum salary of such teachers and leaders in our smallest and poorest school districts.¹⁴

Obviously, a great deal depends upon whether in a given state there is an adequate system of state support for adult education. Half of the forty-eight states make no provision for the use of state funds for adult education.¹⁵ A few states have special grants for adult edu-

¹⁴ A. W. Castle, chief of extension education, state department of public instruction, Pennsylvania, in correspondence with the writer of this chapter.

¹⁵ Maxwell, G. L., *Legal Bases for Adult Education*. Washington, D. C.: Educational Policies Commission. (Unpublished study.)

cation, but in no case have the funds exceeded \$30,000 per year. The insecurity of this kind of support is illustrated by the fact that the 1943 general assembly in North Carolina failed to renew such a grant. Delaware designates .5 percent of the state education funds for the support of adult education. Fourteen states have laws for state reimbursement to school districts for a portion of the costs of adult education. Some of these, as in California, determine the allotment on the basis of average daily attendance; others, as in Pennsylvania, on the basis of assuming a percentage of the costs of instruction.

The case for adequate financial support of adult education is ably summarized by Ponitz:

It is inconceivable that public adult education can go forward successfully and continuously on a volunteer basis. This is evidenced by the fact that work is going forward primarily in that area for which there is adequate support. To think of it largely on a volunteer basis is to deny the need for trained teaching leadership and administration and even its high purposes now generally accepted by everyone. If it is to be more than a fad, a flash, or a passing amusement, then it must have financial tax support on both local and state levels. The federal government may well share in the support, if the support is so written as to further and not stifle local initiative, personal and social freedom.¹⁶

Adequacy of Present Efforts in Meeting Community Needs

Are our present efforts in extending educational opportunities to adults adequate in terms of the job to be done? One of the reasons it is difficult to arrive at an intelligent decision on this question is that we have no well-defined procedures for determining adult education needs. We can, of course, list some of the more obvious general ones. With 10,000,000 adults twenty-five years of age and over reporting fourth-grade educational attainment or less, in the 1940 census, it is not too difficult to recognize literacy education as a continuing need for this large segment of our population. The approximately 700,000 totally illiterate aliens in this country make up another item on the work sheet for adult education. It is usually accepted as fact that public adult education programs have tended to ignore the needs of the underprivileged groups in our population.¹⁷ Workers' education in this country, in striking contrast to the situation in Great Britain, has generally been left to its own devices by the public school.

¹⁶ Ponitz, Henry J., *op. cit.*

¹⁷ Hendrickson, Andrew, *op. cit.*

But these, after all, are parts of an over-all picture which can be easily overlooked in the day-to-day operation of an adult education program in a particular community. What is needed is a procedure for determining the kind of educational program which, in a given community, will really help a significant number of people to achieve the conditions of a better life. Encouraging experimentation in this field has been done within the past year by the adult education council of Denver, Colorado, in cooperation with the Denver Defense Council. With block-by-block sampling of the city's population, thru face-to-face conversations between trained interviewers and the householder, a survey of adult education was made. This gives the adult education agencies of that city an accurate picture of the job they have to do. Noteworthy was the fact revealed by the survey that 87.53 percent of those interviewed were not registered with any of the volunteer agencies connected with the war effort. Significant, too, was the tabulation of replies on the question seeking to determine the areas of educational activity which were most in demand; 63.33 percent of the persons interviewed wanted to help in getting a better understanding of what is going on in a world at war; 84.57 percent had not participated in any course of study or discussion group that did not relate to their job since leaving full-time school.

Without similar surveys in many other communities it is dangerous to attempt generalizations, but it seems reasonable (a) that adult education agencies are not now reaching any considerable portion of the adult population, if we exclude vocational classes, and (b) that there are serious weaknesses in the procedures and materials now being utilized. One of the most obvious shortcomings is in the limited use of the newer media of communication such as films, radio, recordings, and pamphlet materials written in popular and readable style.¹⁸

Public-school adult education programs have offered educational opportunities to adults primarily upon the basis of the adult coming to the school. There seem to be unlimited possibilities in the approach of the school going to the adult.

The Cincinnati, Ohio, public schools initiated a new adult home-making education program in June 1943. One homemaking teacher was relieved of her regular day-school teaching to organize the program. Ten centers were established in widely separated parts of the

¹⁸ For information on at least one effort to solve this problem write to New Tools for Learning, 280 Madison Avenue, New York, New York.

city. The groups have been kept very informal and are called the home and kitchen clubs. During the summer months home canning was emphasized. In the fall, care, renovation, and alteration of clothing were stressed. A major portion of the weekly two-hour meetings is devoted to specific problems on which members need and want immediate help. All participants are made to feel that they can phone or write in at any time and receive assistance. Frequently, attention is given to local information of importance to homemakers—local markets and scarcities, and the programs of local consumer organizations.

This adult homemaking program is planned to reach groups in their own districts and to help them to work out their own immediate problems.¹⁹

Problems of Teacher Education

As long as there are few full-time, well-paid positions in the field of public adult education we can expect that teacher-training institutions will give only incidental attention to the teaching procedures and problems of professional workers. In fact, it is doubtful if many teachers colleges are giving even incidental attention to professional training in this field.

At the present time, improvement of teaching procedures and professionalization of classroom instruction for adults will have to come principally thru in-service-training programs. Intensive training in conferences, workshops, and institutes of short duration are necessary. Extension courses and trained supervisory staffs at the district or state level can serve in lieu of preservice training. In the preparation of teaching materials, outside resources can be used. Many of the private foundations are now active in the preparation of useful and readable materials and teaching aids.²⁰

A number of government agencies prepare materials and provide counseling help for teachers and leaders in adult education. The Department of Agriculture, the U. S. Office of Education, and the Coordinator of Inter-American Affairs are among these. The Education Division of the Immigration and Naturalization Service in the United States Department of Justice has recently extended its program of in-service assistance to teachers of adults in citizenship and

¹⁹ Information provided by George Reavis, assistant superintendent of schools, Cincinnati, Ohio.

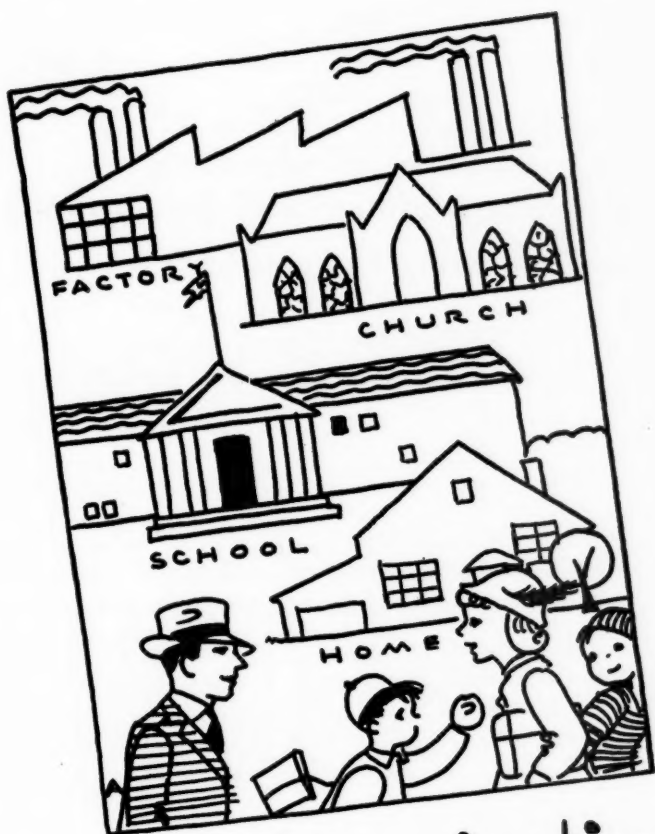
²⁰ Public Affairs Committee, Inc., University of Chicago Round Table, New York University Film Library and Recordings Division, New York University Institute on Postwar Reconstruction, Foreign Policy Association, Twentieth Century Fund, National Planning Association, Commission to Study the Organization of Peace, to mention only a few.

naturalization classes. This help includes materials such as teachers' guides and readers, and counseling service available thru education officers attached to the district staffs of the service.²¹

Granted interest in his work and a desire for self-improvement, the teacher or leader of adults today can get valuable help in raising the level and effectiveness of his teaching effort.

No current analysis of problems and trends in this most volatile educational field can forecast the far-reaching changes which war and postwar developments are certain to bring. There is in operation today as a part of the war program both in and outside the military services the greatest adult education program any nation has ever put into practice. Is it great enough? All instruments of adult education which science has given us must be used so that there may be wisdom and understanding among our people as we strive toward a better life, a better world, and an enduring peace.

²¹ Kendall, Glenn, and Morey, Victor. "Educational Services of the Immigration and Naturalization Service." *Adult Education Bulletin* 7: 144-46; June 1943.



Community Organization
and Cooperation—

PART IV

Extending Educational Opportunity— A Community Responsibility

Solutions of problems which center in the way people live—in homes, on the streets, in the market place, in the play areas or commercialized recreation, or in the swing shifts of war plants—require the pooling of the resources of teachers and the schools with those of other agencies and persons in the community. As teachers face the problems of making the schools more adequate for our times, there must be one constant emphasis—community cooperation and organization. Local teamwork must be stimulated, released, and maintained to meet community needs. Organization is important, but only as it meets the changing situations which create the need. Ways of effecting control and widespread participation by all those affected are important.

10

Community Organization and Cooperation

The current movement toward new patterns of curriculum development, which has been described as an extension of educational opportunity, has at least one constant and emphatic thread or emphasis—community cooperation and organization. Whether examples be cited of adult education, nursery schools, extended day care for children of school age, summer programs, or new kinds of learning activities such as work, community participation or improving personal living, the community factor appears again and again. It is particularly appropriate then to examine the way in which communities have cooperated in extending educational opportunities.

OAKLAND ORGANIZES TO SOLVE PROBLEMS

Out of a specific situation, what to do about Halloween, there has developed in Oakland, California, a social philosophy and a pattern of organization which is now beginning to bear fruit in meeting the accentuated problems of a wartime boom town. A few years ago the community Halloween committee, composed of public and private agencies such as the public schools, the recreation department, the police, the group work agencies, the P.-T.A.s, and dads clubs decided that it was not enough to encourage private parties, school, church, and club activities. There were too many children who were not invited; some districts had festivities for the younger children, but little or nothing for the teen-age youth who were getting into trouble. The most successful activities were neighborhood street parties in which young and old participated. If this kind of project were to be developed so that Halloween would be a festive occasion for everyone, it was evident that the planning would have to be decentralized and based on neighborhood groups.¹

¹ Howard Wells, consultant in individual guidance of the Oakland, California, public schools, has written the longer narrative on which this briefer version is based.

In the first area in which the plan was tried, there were several strong service clubs and merchant groups which were considering the formation of a council for joint action. They immediately accepted the suggestion of sponsoring a Halloween program for their own area. A committee was formed with each club having representation; others invited to participate were faculty and student-body representatives from each school in the area, P.-T.A. members, group work agency secretaries, the police, and a supervisor of the recreation department. Several adult and student subcommittees were added.

Here was a real problem in civics, one in which students had a personal interest. Do young people have a right to destroy property or injure people? Should activities be provided for all, or should the fun be only for those who are invited to parties? (In some neighborhoods there are no parties.) What kind of a program do youth want? Are they willing to assist in the planning and to assume part of the responsibility for such a program? These and other questions were discussed in classes and in school assemblies by the students. It was the consensus of every student group that it would be more fun to take part in a live, well-planned program than to be destructive. Student interest ran high. The suggestions they made at the committee meetings gave the older minds much food for thought.

On Halloween there was something for those of all ages. A street parade, dancing, costume and pie-eating contests, prizes and favors for many showed the result of much careful planning and good organization. The streets were filled with mothers, dads, and children. It was in fact a festive occasion, and not one incident of vandalism was reported for blocks around.

Service Clubs Carry On

After this highly successful Halloween project of various neighborhood groups in East Oakland, the service clubs of that area organized an interservice club council. Schoolmen supplied the leadership for the council in its early months of existence. The first chairman, Rex Turner, principal of the Fremont High School, has supplied the following statement of the council's early development and proposed program:

The interservice club council of East Oakland was organized in 1941. Each of the several service clubs elected three representatives for a period of three years, their terms ending on consecutive years to give the necessary continuity. The purpose of the organization was

to coordinate the work of the service clubs on projects for which a united stand is necessary politically and socially. The group has met on call of the chairman. During the past three years there have been times when meetings were held only once a month, while at other times, they have been held every week.

The group has been primarily concerned with recreational problems—mainly the extension of recreational facilities, the development of long-term plans, and the enlistment of lay personnel.

In February 1942 it became known to the group that the high-school gymnasiums were not being used in the evenings. The great need for an adequate recreational program was evident and one of the men in the physical education department of the Fremont High School volunteered the school's services to carry on a program. The interservice club council sponsored this program and after certain discussions with the city recreation department, decided to carry on the project by themselves. An average of more than one hundred boys has been on hand each night to participate in basketball and jujitsu. One man is in charge and handles basketball, another man takes time from his work to teach jujitsu, and a third attends to the routine work of issuing towels, supervising showers, and helping in other ways. A second night has been opened for tumbling and about seventy-five boys are interested in this activity. As rapidly as possible other groups in boxing and wrestling, badminton, and so forth, will be organized so that before the summer is over it is hoped to have a program for five nights in the week.

The council is planning to enlarge its efforts but only as rapidly as groups in various subcommunities can be interested, leaders trained, and a strong program developed. This type of approach involves discovering recreational needs in a specific community contacting the agency in the community which is best fitted to handle the problem, working with this group to the point where a program will develop, and then tying this group into the central body by representation on the council. It is hoped to bring in churches, the "Y," clubs, and other organizations.

Organizing Community Councils

At about the time of the organization of the interservice club council, a larger and more widely representative body took up the work of furthering community councils. This was first known as the neighborhood council committee, of the group work section of the community chest. Its makeup included representatives of the Halloween committee, the interservice club council, and other persons and groups interested in community development. It began to meet regularly for discussion, but found with the advent of war that its activities should be accelerated. For the most part this recognition was due to the actual and expected increase in juvenile delinquency attending the congestion in certain areas of the city.

The neighborhood council committee, in cooperation with the law enforcement agencies, then presented a plan for the development of community councils to the committee on juvenile delinquency of the Alameda County Council for Civilian Defense. The judge of the juvenile court was chairman of this civilian agency. As a result of this action, a subcommittee was appointed to assist neighborhoods to perfect an organization for raising and maintaining high morale, not only among youth but among adults as well.

One member of the subcommittee was asked to serve as a consultant for a trial neighborhood. The area chosen was a section of East Oakland with a population of about 55,000. It was chosen for various reasons: it could be very easily defined geographically; there was a fairly wide range of socio-economic groups in the population, but neither extreme was represented; there were public and private housing projects and trailer camps; the usual social pathologies were present but were not represented in an aggravated form; and the available facilities for recreation were fairly adequate. It was an area of real challenge, yet one in which the technics of organization could be studied experimentally to greater advantage than in one of the more difficult sections of the city.

At an early mass meeting, there was a surprisingly large representation of civic, fraternal, religious, and professional groups, as well as members of the city and county defense councils and persons from various walks of life. Temporary chairmen of organization and nomination committees were named. A tentative statement of objectives included the support and further promotion of youth groups, agencies, and recreation programs that were already active; assistance in the organization of hobby and back-yard clubs; the wider use of the school, church, and recreational facilities for the good of more persons; and immediate planning to meet the needs of each age group in each section of the area. "Off the streets" was adopted as a slogan.

Within two weeks the officers were installed and an organization known as the Arroyo Viejo Community Council came into being. Much of the work was then attempted thru special committees. Members of the Mills College faculty served as co-chairmen of a committee which gathered important data and helped to point the way to immediate action. They cataloged and charted the location of all youth groups sponsored by the schools, churches, and other organizations; listed all facilities for club activities; and compiled facts about working mothers, delinquency, work permits for youth, and the like. Materials previously gathered by the War Manpower

Commission and by an earlier survey group of the P.-T.A. were also utilized by this committee.

The program committee of the community council found that it had to work thru other committees in order to insure the coverage of a wide range of interests. Several new scout troops for girls as well as for boys were formed, and others were in process of organization. The Oakland boys' club dedicated a new shop and experienced a marked increase in members. The churches, both Protestant and Catholic, increased the availability of their facilities. They sponsored additional youth groups, and supplied representatives to serve on special committees. Brookfield Village, a private housing development, completed arrangements for a recreation program of its own. This was promoted by a committee of village residents. An orchestra which had formerly been formed wholly from residents of the public-housing project was thrown open to those seeking membership from the community at large.

Recreation Director Appointed

As soon as the intention to form a community council became widely known, a resident woman director was appointed for the Arroyo Viejo Park, an eighteen-acre tract under the management of the city recreation department. She represented the recreation department and worked tirelessly with the council in the development of the program. Since her appointment, additional playgrounds have been provided with supervisors; lay men and women have been recruited to serve as assistant playground directors and to lead activity groups; the hours of operation have been extended for all playgrounds; and the park clubhouse has been made available for Friday evening meetings of a social character. The biweekly dances at the high-school gymnasium for the youth of the community have also been under the general supervision of the recreation department, tho a faculty member has been employed to assist the youth in planning and supervising their own dances.

Programs for adults, other than those that have been described, are in the preplanning stage. Folk dancing, dramatics, and community singing are under consideration.

A recreation youth council was organized among junior and senior high-school students. The survey which they conducted showed their members to be particularly interested in having the school gymnasiums open during out-of-school hours for sports, dances, and games. There were similar suggestions regarding the

craft workshops and the libraries. A start has been made on this program, tho full progress still awaits the adjustment of certain financial and technical problems. The youth council has committees working on certain phases of the summer program. Its president reports at each meeting of the community council and is a member of the executive committee.

Committee on Social Adjustment of School Children

A committee of heterogeneous composition—teachers, church workers, social workers, policemen, and probation officers—has been formed to assist the child in need of better social adjustment. Its interest first centered upon the younger children, but has now been extended to take in all those within elementary-school age ranges. This committee has started upon a program intended to identify children who appear to be disturbed by family problems or by failure to make friends with their associates. It seeks to help these children to make a better adjustment and to provide activities that are suited to their needs.

Each elementary teacher is helping with the construction of a friendship chart, a device thru which the interpupil social structure can be ascertained. Thru this means and other related technics, socially rejected or isolated children can be identified; "stars of attraction" become known; those who admire and seek the friendship of known delinquents can be discovered; and appropriate developmental activities can be initiated.

The resources of the department of individual guidance of the Oakland public schools have been made available in follow-up work with individual cases. These include consulting assistance as well as the cumulative records showing health status, scholastic aptitude and proficiency, and attendance. The group work agencies have assisted in helping a given child become oriented in a group that is already organized; also in forming a small group of these children into a club of their own. Hobby types of organization have worked best in this connection. Where possible, a member of the school faculty or someone in the community who can form a friendly relationship with the child has been asked to serve as sponsor.

Altho attention is now being directed to those who tend to become social misfits, it is planned to develop a program to work just as strategically with those who offer the most promise of becoming the leaders of tomorrow. To extend the program thru the upper grades is also a part of the committee's ambition.

A Final Look at the Community Council

The organization of the council is relatively simple and informal. It has an executive committee, consisting of the chairmen and officers of all standing and temporary committees. The executive committee makes decisions and charts the general course of action, tho it relies upon the whole council membership to approve its decisions and to appraise what is going on. Meetings of the entire council are held each month. It is expected that in the course of time there will be fifteen or more subcommittees of self-directing type like the one that has just been described. For many of these a clear-cut function has not yet been found and organization awaits this discovery. It is inevitable, tho, that structure will precede the discovery of function in some instances.

While the council has been relatively independent of other agencies, it has been helped by many. The county council for civilian defense took responsibility for calling the first mass meeting of citizens and has actively supported on a broader scale several specific projects. The Oakland Defense Council has lent assistance for organization and planning. This agency has contributed much needed clerical assistance and has provided the services of the auxiliary police at the youth dances. The parent-teacher groups of the area made the first fact-finding survey and have encouraged their members to participate actively in council projects. The Oakland schools have provided the use of the assembly halls, the gymnasiums, and the services of the department of individual guidance. Principals, teachers, and students have given generously of their time.

The council, too, has made some progress in its associations with other community-serving agencies. Its program is being planned to supplement but not replace the program of the schools, that of the city recreation department, and the day-care programs for the children of working mothers.

TEACHER ROLES IN COMMUNITY ORGANIZATION AND COOPERATION

Leading adult groups, or acting as liaison officer between the school and the community, is not the wartime job for many members of the teaching profession. Large numbers lack the technical background and the necessary experiences for initiating activities or for stimulating the thinking of a heterogeneous group of busy, action-minded citizens. Teachers whose chief contacts with adults have been centered upon John's problem or Mary's progress cannot

work easily with the varied groups who must have a part in community projects. Such persons are likely to revert too quickly to the feeling that the school's ways are being challenged. And they are quite unprepared for the confused overlapping of responsibility which has attended our development of governmental and quasi-governmental agencies.

It seems logical, however, to hold that one of the prime considerations in the extension of educational opportunities is the benefit which the teacher can experience in being a participant. This is a benefit which will revert to the system in many ways as teachers face the problem of making the schools more adequate for our times. But we do not have reference here to participation by proxy, to such vicarious representation as can be supplied by the school official who is already a member of a service club and a community worker of some ability. Nor are we thinking only of experience with "going concerns"—those community organisms which seem always to progress without entertaining serious difficulty. We include in our prescription a reasonable portion of service with communities and community working groups of uncertain leadership—the kind that seldom appears in success stories.

But how can this be done? How can teachers become more than passive participants in the struggling groups of a community that is attempting to solve difficult problems? The number of official, semi-official, and volunteer agencies that must be represented in the planning and installation stages of any important activity is very great. Few think it necessary to include the teachers; so how can they secure active roles?

We have touched upon this "Achilles' heel" of the current extension of educational opportunities for a positive reason. School systems do have many persons who have unusual resources for group leadership in wartime jobs. In the smaller schools such persons are frequently to be found among the principals, general supervisors, teachers of homemaking, agriculture, physical education, and sponsors of youth organizations. In the larger schools one may add nurses and visiting teachers, members of departments of child guidance, forum leaders, heads of teacher organizations, teachers of distributive occupations, counselors and guidance officers, and the like. Where individual talents and inclinations warrant, these persons should be encouraged to direct community enterprises, especially those which require local planning and deliberation and which belong partly to the school and partly to other community agencies. Each

leader of this type has abundant opportunity to include other members of the school's personnel with him—with the concerns that come early to the attention of subgroups and special committees. It is in this way, we believe, that participation in the school-community effort to extend educational opportunities may be assured for classroom teachers in general.

KEEPING IN TOUCH WITH THE COMMUNITY

Site of both the General Electric and the American Locomotive plants, Schenectady, New York, is indeed a boom city. It has had more than its quota of problems—housing, transportation, crowded schools, excessive working hours for employed secondary students, delinquency among young girls, and threats to community solidarity which are seldom experienced in the more even tenor of peacetime living. It is significant, therefore, that the school forces have chosen this period for increased attention to the needs of children.

There has been a distinct effort to protect elementary-school children from the more sordid sides of the war and its effects. It is perhaps this objective, more than any other, which has led to an increased emphasis upon child case conferences and the study of individual pupils. The conferences have permitted the teachers to become more familiar with changed and changing problems of family living. It has not been easy, however, to gain access to homes where children are most in need of protection, nor have the teachers felt fully adequate to do home visiting. In order to expedite a lengthy process of orientation, the system has employed a full-time social worker. She will act not only as liaison officer between the schools and the social agencies but will attempt to supervise the home visiting of various groups of the educational personnel. School nurses are shortly to begin a brief period of apprenticeship under her direction. If the plan succeeds, other groups will follow in due course. Meanwhile, the possibilities for more direct contacts with the social agencies will be explored, particularly as they grow out of the adjustment needs revealed in the case conferences.

Citizens' Unity Committee in Schenectady

Another project, to which reference was made in an earlier chapter, had its beginning in Schenectady. The citizens' unity committee grew up with a statewide unity committee and served the latter as a demonstration in a specific setting. The state committee has helped to service these "grass roots" undertakings, which now appear in

many of the state's larger communities. The special function of these local committees is well described by their titles, tho procedures naturally vary from place to place.

In Schenectady the committee is made up of fourteen persons who have been chosen because of their association with the civic, industrial, and cultural life of the city. Meetings of this group have been devoted to hearing reports from a full-time field worker, who was formerly an active organizer in OCD's mobilization efforts. The field worker has met with many of the city's eight hundred clubs, organizations, and agencies. She has attempted to ascertain the needs of these groups and the particular problems which claim their attention, especially as they have significance for civic unity. From such hearings the committee decides upon a course of action, so far as local action can suffice to meet the situation.

It will be seen that the unity committee is not a fact-gathering body of the survey type, nor does it purport to coordinate the work of the many clubs and organizations. It is a deliberative body with concern for matters which might divide the community into hostile camps. Its main reliance is upon education and prevention. Thru a part-time secretary, who was formerly the director of school and community forums, the committee has a connecting link with all the organizations that offer formal programs or engage in panel discussions. Reference has already been made to the unusual demand upon the speakers' bureau, a resource made available thru the cooperation of the unity committee and the board of education.

A deliberative body like the unity committee cannot be identified too directly with the public schools without limiting its future usefulness. Like the community council of East Oakland it must maintain its independence of control from any one of the community's existing agencies. And this independence must be of a character that the public can observe. It would not be appropriate, therefore, for the rolls of the unity committee to be swelled by the addition of a significant number of the educational personnel.

In a sense this defies our major thesis, that teachers can be included in many community working groups thru the coordinating activities of skilled community workers among the school personnel. But this does not mean that all possibilities for community education must be confined to the field worker and the secretary. Each of these persons can supply both teachers and students with much useful information and valuable suggestions. Problems of wartime citizenship and conduct in which the school should engage—spiking false

rumors, buying to meet minimum needs, developing new tolerances, and the like—will take on a new vitality in proportion as their local significance is understood. Some secondary schools may be located in sections of the city where a school unity committee not unlike the major body may perform a valuable function with students and parents. Indeed, there is no difficult problem of civic unity which does not have its counterpart within the student personnel of an all-purpose secondary school. By keeping in touch with crucial community situations, resourceful teachers and students can come to see the social organism in which they work in a new perspective.

COMMUNITY COOPERATION IN RADFORD, VIRGINIA

The third and last sketch of this series begins far along in the stream of history. To reveal the evolutionary processes thru which civic spirit has developed or the cycles of transition in community leadership would take many pages. For this reason the reader is asked to begin with events of very recent origin.

Early in March 1940 the *Radford News Journal* reported:

A program of recreational activity for the city of Radford seemed assured when the city council placed on its first reading Monday night an ordinance creating a public recreation, parks, and playgrounds commission. . . . In presenting the ordinance the commonwealth's attorney stated that it had been drawn with a great deal of consideration and with the assistance of specialists in the field. . . .²

Now, two years after the passing of the ordinance, Radford can look with pride and achievement beyond its expectations. Besides the recreation commission appointed by the city council, there is a year-round director of recreation and a staff of several full-time workers. Five playgrounds have been started, three for white children and two for Negroes. A new regional library, replacing the voluntary city library, has made 400,000 books available to the community. During the first three months of its existence, monthly circulation increased from 800 to 3286 books. A varied recreation program during the past year has touched some 10,000 individuals, about one-third of whom are adults. A recreation center costing approximately \$130,000 is nearing completion. This consists of a centrally located building with adjacent outdoor playgrounds. The latter will supplement the playgrounds already developed around elementary schools and in two residential areas for Negroes. Adequate library and reading room space are provided, since the nearby high school building already furnishes a suitable auditorium and stage for community programs and gatherings.³

² *Radford News Journal*, March 14, 1940.

³ *Recreation Meets a Challenge*, New Dominion Series, No. 12. Charlottesville, Va.: Extension Division Publication of the University of Virginia, April 1, 1942. p. 2-4.

Such a record incites both admiration and curiosity. How did the commonwealth's attorney and his associates achieve such success with the city council? Ordinarily these bodies are not so amenable to the creation of civic boards which may bring new demands upon the treasury. Who were the persons who helped to hold the various projects together, that is, who kept competition within the community to a minimum? How did it happen that civic organizations, boards of public welfare, of public education, and the like, were willing to merge their efforts and the distinctiveness of their functions into enterprises for the common good? And, finally, what can a community learn from a successful cooperative effort in the area of recreation? Does such a community find itself more ready to cope with problems having a different genesis and order of evolvement? These are questions whose answers shall be attempted in a more complete narrative.

Informal Coordination

It will simplify the task of organization and interpretation if a few of the general characteristics of the Radford adventure in cooperation are conveyed to the reader. Personal conversations with key members of the community have underlined these characteristics in ways not available to one who would tell a connected story of events. So it seems best to pass these along to the reader at the outset.

The first characteristic has to do with community organization and coordination. Radford achieved marked success in a series of coexisting efforts—the recreation program and building, the fight on delinquency, building a community hospital, financing and building a new commercial hotel, and varied minor projects—without a recognized planning or coordinating agency. In a limited way the recreation commission came to be a coordinating agency after its arrival on the scene. But before its advent and even after it began to function, needed coordination was effected thru a strong feeling of community responsibility on the part of each public official.

There was a general realization on the part of everyone in an official position—city manager, judge of juvenile court, superintendent of schools, director of recreation, superintendent of public welfare, commonwealth's attorney, and chief of police—that altho each had a specific job, each was at the same time engaged in a community undertaking in which he must know the other fellow's job and cooperate with him.⁴

⁴ General statement of voluntary comments made to the writer by three of the officials named above.

Perhaps the remarkable feature of this informal, voluntary type of exchange and coordination was that it was largely independent of the boards to whom these officials owed their appointments and to whom they looked for guidance. The personnel of various boards in Radford—public welfare, school, council, library, and the like—was made up of substantial citizens, neither more nor less imaginative than the usual incumbent of these positions in a city of 6500 population. The special genius of the official group—commonwealth's attorney, juvenile judge, superintendent of public welfare, superintendent of schools, chief of police, and others—resided in their recognition that any formal plan of coordination would be likely to fail. Hence they met informally, often in groups of two or three persons, discussed their obligations, made commitments to prevent the premature absorption of an enterprise by any one agency, and tried to keep community betterment projects on the move.

A second characteristic of the four-year experience in cooperation (1939-40 thru 1942-43) was the continuous commitment to the betterment of the Radford community proper. Progress had only begun to be apparent when the city's peripheral population began to increase by leaps and bounds. With the coming of the ordnance plant to a site near the city limits, there was pressure from federal agencies to broaden the cooperative base, to make it include the district about the plant. To this pressure the local leaders were highly resistant. They looked ahead to the Radford which would still be in existence when the surrounding population had moved on to other jobs. And they felt it unwise to organize on an area basis until the local groups had tasted success and knew more about where they were going. Tho many of the local projects and decisions were immediately helpful to the ordnance plant population, attention to the Radford community proper was never permitted to hold a secondary position.

Recreation Director's Diary

These preliminary observations will suffice to make fully intelligible the following excerpts from a diary prepared by the city's first director of recreation.⁵ The diary will be interrupted from time to time to include items not covered by the author.

Youth Study. During the fall of 1937, the commonwealth's attorney,⁶ John Goldsmith, and the judge of the city's juvenile and

⁵ Harold J. Weekley. *Recreation Diary*. (Unpublished.)

⁶ Not to be confused with the position of county prosecutor. The commonwealth's attorney held responsibility for all disorder, vice, and crime within the city limits and within one mile of such limits.

domestic relations court, Charles Capito, became disturbed at the number of juveniles coming into court. They made a survey of juvenile delinquency during the winter of 1937-38. This included case histories and individual plans for each of the seventy-eight young persons listed as delinquents. To correct this situation the cooperation of school officials and instructors was sought in planning for those offenders who were still in school. Talks were given by each before student assemblies. Parents, professional workers, and interested citizens were also informed of the problem as revealed by the study.

Improving Urban Culture. In the fall of 1938, the ninth-grade pupils at the high school began a unit of work on improving urban culture. The Radford High School had been associated with the schools of the Southern Association which had been working under a foundation grant to discover new ways of relating the curriculum to the needs of the community. The year-long unit on the improvement of urban culture was only one of several similar enterprises which focused attention upon the local community.

As the ninth-grade pupils started to examine the local assets and liabilities, their attention turned to the community's lack of playgrounds. There were none except those connected with the schools; neither was there provision for supervised recreation during the summer. Recognizing a possible relationship between these facts and the previous year's discussion of delinquency, the pupils sought the advice of the commonwealth's attorney. With his help they outlined a series of steps for further study and action.

Negro Delinquency Attacked by Civic Leaders. While students at the high school were studying community improvement, a few civic leaders were seeking a means for reducing juvenile delinquency among the Negroes. Since play areas for colored youth were even scarcer than for the white children, it was felt that securing a playground for Negroes would reduce the number of juvenile delinquents. The commonwealth's attorney, with the assistance of a few Negro leaders, began to look for land.

In March 1939 the Riverside Park was established. The Norfolk and Western Railroad leased to the city for one dollar per year a desirable tract of land on New River near a Negro section of the city. The Negro leaders agreed that they would use their best efforts to keep Negro children from using the streets as playgrounds, that they would be responsible for supervising the park, and that they would try to keep down delinquency.

Student Delegation before the Council. In May 1939 the ninth-grade students appeared before the council with a carefully drawn petition. This asked council support for a recreation and playground program for the city. In addition the pupils outlined the work which they and their associates at the high school had agreed to contribute if the council approved their request. The council did not act immediately except to refer the matter to the city manager for further negotiation with the students.

In the fall of 1939, teachers and principals who had been giving information to the juvenile judge and the commonwealth's attorney began to see that the crime prevention program called for an all-out community effort. It was not a task which could be delegated to a small group of officials or agencies. They saw possibilities in a more cooperative drive to reinforce the city's recreational provisions and expressed their willingness to assist. From this time the work of the small group—attorney, judge, police chief, probation officer, and superintendent of schools—became somewhat easier. They could look ahead to an enlarged interest on the part of various community groups. Following a series of meetings with the principals, it was easier, too, for the official group to secure a basic understanding of the other fellow's job. Ultimately they came to be pretty clear as to where each would fit into the picture in the recreation and delinquency prevention programs which were just beginning.

Provision for the Summer of 1940. In the fall of 1939, interested parties persuaded the budget committee of the community chest to include an item of \$500 to pay the salary of a director of recreation for the summer of 1940.

In the following March the city council passed the ordinance creating a public recreation, parks, and playground commission. This ordinance had been carefully reviewed by representatives of the National Recreation Association, who had begun to take an interest in the Radford situation. The major civic organizations had previously endorsed the ordinance and had recommended certain of their members for appointment to the commission. The ordinance had provided that one member of the schoolboard should be appointed to the recreation commission. For the other six positions, the council selected three men and three women.

The commission took up its work immediately, giving first attention to securing more general understanding and support. It sponsored a meeting in the high-school auditorium at which time representatives of the National Recreation Association discussed the local situation with members of the schoolboard, the city council, and interested citizens.

A director of recreation was chosen for the summer. With the limited budget, it was necessary to secure help from every interested source. The city council donated the services of its employees for cutting grass, building sand boxes, scraping softball fields, rolling tennis courts, and repairing the swimming pool. It also supplied the director with gasoline and oil for his car. The city tennis association paid for the maintenance of the three courts belonging to the city. The local Red Cross chapter contributed \$90 toward the salary of the swimming instructor at the pool. The American Legion contributed office space for the director and his twelve volunteer leaders.

Playground attendants for August were supplied by the WPA. For the first two months, twenty students of a class in playground techniques at the Radford Teachers College helped with playground supervision.

At the conclusion of the summer, the director stayed on in the community as head of athletics at the high school and part-time staff member at the college. Failure to provide a budget for the regular school year meant that all activities either ceased at the summer's end or merged with the enterprises commonly conducted by the schools.

Coming of the Ordnance Plant. Government plans for a powder plant in the vicinity of Radford began to take shape during the summer of 1940. Construction started in September. It was announced that employment rolls would reach 10,000 by December with a peak of 28,000 by the following March. Tho the plant site was located some five miles from the city limits, the immediate effect caused the population of the city proper to nearly double in the course of the next eighteen months.

This increase in the population created serious problems of housing, feeding, and recreation. Beer halls, juke joints, and wayside houses began to spring up all around the city.

Facilities for recreation in what had been a city of homeowners now became hopelessly inadequate. There were three movie theaters with a combined seating capacity of 1300 and operating on week-days only. The one small bowling parlor had but three alleys. And while the new wage earners and their children were law abiding citizens for the most part, the police force had to be doubled before four months had elapsed.

Consistent and diligent efforts on the part of the commonwealth's attorney, the probation officer, the chief of police, and others prevented a great increase in delinquency, tho they were powerless to stem a flood of complaints about behavior which was generally obnoxious. This was doubtless the beginning of what might be termed predelinquency.

Time To Act. In December 1940 the state supervisor of WPA recreation for defense areas came for a conference with the former director of recreation, the superintendent of schools, and the chairman of the recreation commission. It was decided to divide the city into five regions corresponding to the elementary-school attendance districts and to appoint advisory groups of four or five members for each region. A school principal or supervisor acted as chairman for each group. The advisory bodies assumed the task of surveying their own section for recreational activities, unused facilities, and volunteer workers. In addition they sought to determine the unsupplied needs of their respective communities.

In a meeting of the advisory groups with the city council and recreation commission members on December 31, it was decided to make a more complete survey. This task was turned over to a three-member committee. Questionnaires were distributed which called for

varied items of information; there was included a referendum on the issue of Sunday movies. This break from the traditional practice was supported by a large majority.

The city schools had been helping with the leisure-time problem by conducting night classes and activities for adults. On Monday nights it had been customary to hold a community forum on a topic of general interest. Recreation needs of Radford became the forum topic for a meeting on January 20 with an audience of over 150. The group went on record as pledging its support to the recreation commission for a year-round program for the city.

On the following evening the recreation commission unanimously adopted a resolution which asked the council to make an emergency appropriation of \$2500 for the salary of a full-time director up to July 1, 1941. It also served notice of its intention to submit at a later date an annual budget for carrying on the recreation program. The council approved the \$2500 emergency budget on January 27, 1941.

The city board of education went on record as favoring the use of their facilities in making the recreation program possible. They offered the after-school and evening use of three elementary-school buildings and playgrounds and the part-time use of the high-school building and the high-school athletic field.

The National Recreation Association supplied the services of one of their specialists for a two-week period. At the end of this time it was decided that he would stay on as the director of the recreation program.

Activities in March, April and May 1941. The new director took up his work on January 30 in a temporary office. From the beginning he stressed the fact that the success of the program depended less on the efforts of the director than on the realization of the people that the program was theirs and that it could succeed only as they gave it full cooperation and support. Six large scrapbooks of newspaper clippings tell the story of the response of the community thru its organizations and thru the voluntary services of individuals. The immediate staff, made up largely of volunteers and WPA assistants, started many new activities and offered leadership and facilities for existing groups. A church institute was held to help churches plan their recreational activities. The Girl Scout troop which had died for lack of leadership was revived. A picnic service organized large picnics for industrial concerns or small picnics for people who needed to learn to use the park. Dances were held in the college gymnasium and in the American Legion building for workers at the ordnance plant.⁷

An elementary school in a remote section of the city was opened as a community center. Activities were managed by a center association. Some of the special features included woodworking, a charm class, and square dancing. The interest of the adults in square dancing soon outgrew the space available for the Monday night sessions necessitating their transfer to the American Legion building.

⁷ *Recreation Meets a Challenge*, op. cit.

The increase in population attracted new commercial amusements. These were welcomed and offered cooperation in return for keeping up desirable standards. A new \$30,000 bowling alley, for example, was used by the project in organizing three bowling leagues which enlisted the participation of over 200 persons. The proprietor recognized this cooperation as good business, and satisfactory working relations developed between public and private enterprises. A commercial skating rink had a similar experience.⁸

Thruout these months there was much discussion of the need for a community building for recreational purposes. Gradually there came to be a conviction that such a building should be municipally controlled thru the recreation commission and municipally supported thru direct appropriations by the city council. As this opinion became commonly shared among the key workers in recreation and the prevention of delinquency, the schoolboard withdrew its proposal for federal assistance, improvement, and extension of the school playground facilities.

Negotiations with field representatives of the recreation section of the Federal Security Agency gave support to the belief that federal assistance could be secured for the building. But first there was the matter of a site. Fortunately, the city already owned some unimproved lots in a fairly central location which seemed to be adequate for the small building which was envisioned. To extend the grounds in such a way as to make outdoor fields immediately available, the council purchased two additional lots at a cost of \$10,000. This gave a frontage of 300 feet and a depth of 125 feet. The close proximity of the high-school building and its athletic field reduced the need for a tract of larger size.

In May 1941 the city council approved a budget item of \$4000 in response to the request of the recreation commission. This fell slightly below the commission's expectations; the reduction was necessitated by the strain on the city's finances created by the new demands of the growing population.

Appeal for a Building Grant

When requesting a federal grant for the building and equipment, the city was able to marshal these facts as evidence of its belief in the project: its contribution of \$6500 to the recreation budget, together with land valued at \$81,000; the effective use of all its present facilities; and recognition of the importance of a good recreation

⁸ *Ibid.*, p. 5.

program to the extent of being willing to assume responsibility for its future maintenance and operation. Indeed, the willingness of federal agencies to consider the Radford request and ultimate success in obtaining a liberal grant were due in large measure to the clarity with which the community had understood its needs and made its plans.

Need for a Larger Structure

Up to the spring of 1941 the Radford public library had been located over one of the downtown stores. Its monthly circulation of books was about 800. It had neither the staff nor the resources for serving the enlarged Radford population, to say nothing of the surrounding villages which were springing up with each housing project. To meet this situation, there was created the Radford Area Library Board. The new board took in two counties as well as the city, and was independently authorized by the Radford city council and the boards of supervisors of the counties in question.

It was difficult to raise sufficient funds immediately to insure the type of service envisioned for the 70,000 people of the area. The Radford city council contributed \$585 and the community chest \$400. The WPA came to the rescue, however, supplying the services of a librarian, several assistants, a bookmobile, and about 3000 books. With this help the new library service began to break all records for circulation in the third month of its existence.

In the following year, 1941-42, the bookmobile carried books to twenty-one deposit stations in the counties and served twenty-two schools. Deposit stations were maintained at the ordnance plant recreation hall, the knitting mill, and the city hospital. Every two weeks the bookmobile visited each of the four housing projects outside the city and circulated books directly from the shelves of the truck.

By June 1941 there was a general belief that the new recreation building should include suitable rooms for the area library. Rough estimates of building costs then moved from \$50,000 to approximately twice that figure.

The story of the negotiations over the recreation building would take several additional pages. It will be necessary, therefore, to say only that it was completed in the spring of 1942 and occupied in the month of April. In the same month the city council approved a recreation budget of \$5000 for 1942-43. The community chest contribution of \$800 was continued.

Uses Made of the Recreation Building. Tho the building was managed and supported by the Radford community proper, every week found people coming from the several housing projects for parties and other leisure-time activities. At the conclusion of the first year of use, the following activities had been conducted in the recreation center: general dances, ordnance plant inspectors' dances, Saturday night dancing club, afternoon jitterbug sessions, dancing lessons, acrobatic dancing, tap dancing, folk dancing, and square dancing; basketball for men, women, boys, and girls; volleyball for women and plant workers; handball, boxing, wrestling, tumbling, high-school victory corps fitness classes, badminton, shuffleboard, ping-pong, Boy Scouts' court of honor, indoor circus, flower and garden shows, food demonstrations, holiday celebrations, parties, community mass meetings, community sings, band concerts, art exhibitions, craft classes, making surgical dressings, developing and printing pictures, weaving, and furniture construction and repair.

There were meetings in the fireside room by the following organizations: garden club, women's club, D.A.R., Lions Club, Girl Scouts, Boy Scouts, married couples club, hiking club, retail merchants association, auxiliary motor corps, OCD, tuberculosis association, camera club, teen-age club, peace forum, Red Cross chapter, D.G. club, high-school classes, community chest committee, war bond committees, and the child-care committee.

Hospital Project

In dealing with the federal government, and in following the Lanham Act thru Congress, the commonwealth's attorney realized that there would be funds available for purposes other than recreation, day care of children, and the like, if the community could demonstrate its need. Attention then turned to the community's need for a hospital. There were, at the time, about nine doctors in the city; they had been maintaining a private hospital of twenty-eight bed capacity, much too small for the city's enlarged population.

The attorney first approached the business agent of the doctors, who was in charge of the hospital. After much negotiation it was decided to ask for an outright grant. The new building which ultimately resulted from this effort is now being completed at a cost of \$321,000—entirely on a federal grant.

Talking It Over

During the late fall of 1940 and continuing thru 1941-42, there were meetings almost every day, sometimes two or three, at which various key persons in these enterprises were in attendance. At every unexpected turn of events it was possible to convene a representative

group of citizens on short notice given by telephone. No doubt this ease of assembly served adequately in lieu of some more formal plan of communication and coordination.

At any rate, the attempt to form a coordinating group in the year 1941-42 proved to be disappointing. Such a body, composed of certain members of each of the working groups, met regularly for a time to consider general matters of community interest. But they found little or nothing to do—at least nothing as absorbing as the special projects on which they were working—so they decided to disband.

Vacation Bible School

For some years the various religious groups of Radford have worked together to support a program of weekday religious education in the elementary schools of the city. This project has been sponsored by the city council of religious education, an organization composed of representatives of the various denominations and supported in part by them and in part by grants from the community chest fund.

The success of this work led to an increased interest in a single vacation Bible school for the city. During the spring of 1943, plans were made for such a venture by a committee representing the independent Bible schools. Where formerly these had run for not to exceed a week, eight schools, in different sections of the city, were maintained under the cooperative plan for a period of two full weeks. Schools were organized according to grade levels, but not divided according to denomination. They were staffed by the religious assistants from the various denominations and by representative teachers from each of the Sunday schools.

A Christian service club, composed of young adolescents from various sections of the city, has been organized as an outgrowth of the vacation school. These young people are sponsoring programs in the churches and service projects in the community. They have organized dramatic groups, a verse-speaking choir, and a joint musical chorus.

The churches of the community and the Radford Teachers College cooperated in the organization of a religious work camp on an experimental basis during the first term of the 1943 summer session. One of the moving forces in coming together for this project was the desire to help supply religious services for the defense villages which have encircled Radford. Where a spirit of denominational

competition had reared its head in the early discussion of the defense villages, the final result of working together and planning together went far to remove the competitive element.

The Battle on Delinquency

Radford's interest in the recreation program and in other cooperative projects of the past four years has not lessened the general concern for juvenile delinquency. Has it decreased? What has been the effect of the programs for youth? How do the records compare with those for 1937 to 1939?

It is not easy to give offhand answers to these questions. True, for some thirty-four months in the period of rapidly expanding population, no new delinquent was brought into court. But this tells only one side of the story. The juvenile court judge, his probation officer who also acts as superintendent of the board of public welfare, and the commonwealth's attorney have made every effort to keep petitions from being filed which would bring boys or girls into court. They feel it a part of their responsibility to keep youth from the stigma of being court cases. In this, too, they have another reason, which is simply that there is no suitable place to send consistent offenders, once their delinquency status has been well established. In other words, a delinquent is to them a tacit admission of failure.

These three officials, together with the chief of police, have been following a long-time policy which is soon to be presented to the citizens of Radford in a factual form. It has been a policy of close communication and exchange. Beyond this it has been a policy of seeing offenders in three classes: delinquents, probationary delinquents, and predelinquents or petty disturbers. This aim has been to keep the offender from advancing to the apex of this pyramid, and to move him progressively toward the group which gives society no concern.

How well this plan has succeeded is about to be judged by four unofficial members of the group associated with the judge of the juvenile court. Included here are the superintendent of schools, the psychologist from the Radford Teachers College, the director of recreation, and a representative from the ministers assigned to the local churches. As its working basis, the appraisal group has two lists of names—a short list of delinquents and probationary delinquents, and a much longer list of youth against whom complaints have been made. It has the complete records of the treatment of each case. The appraisal group has been meeting from time to time with the official

group ever since the late months of 1938. But the personnel of both groups has changed repeatedly in the intervening years. Hence there is a need for meeting together more regularly, in the effort to complete an appraisal of progress on the delinquency problem.

The official group has not discouraged the attention of Radford citizens to undesirable conduct or behavior on the part of Radford's children and youth. With the growing attention to recreation and the social services of the community, it was inevitable that this attention should increase, and the officials have done nothing to dispel it. Indeed, they have taken the opposed course. It has been their judgment that the continued support of the community for its recreation, library, and school programs requires the constant concern of all citizens for the general conduct of youth; not just the attention of a specialized board or group of public servants.

Looking Ahead

There is some discussion of the amalgamation of certain boards—the school board, recreation board, library board, and board of public welfare. How far this will go is still a matter of conjecture. The problems of youth and the further extension of opportunities, both educational and social, hardly permit independent functioning by these bodies. Thus far the city has been fortunate. It has had executive officers of these bodies who were generous and farseeing, who were willing to merge their own ambitions in the common good. But it might not always have this good fortune; nor can it always be sure that the board members will continue to be amenable to the cooperation of their executive officers in fusion enterprises. Hence the problem of union now. Hundreds of students of community organization will be looking to Radford to see what happens.

GENERALIZATIONS ON COMMUNITY COOPERATION

The generalizations which are recorded at this point relate almost wholly to the East Oakland, Schenectady, and Radford sketches. Readers who have followed the unfolding of the Oakland and Radford narratives, and the brief picture of activities in Schenectady, will realize how little justification there is in measuring one development against another. Each represented a response to local circumstances and conditions. The common threads of these undertakings, and the conclusions which are drawn, must be relatively general in character.

In essence, all three stories have dealt with the degree to which

local teamwork can be stimulated to meet community needs, with the method by which successful teamwork can be released and maintained. Some writers would confine this statement to local leadership. But the term, "teamwork," is a broader and more manageable concept.

Importance of a Basic Need

The first generalization is that organization is important, but not so important as the moving situation which creates the need. Organization must grow from a feeling of need and a sense of common purpose. At the first mass meeting in East Oakland, for example, it was believed that the dominating purpose of organization should be "to meet the needs of each age group in each section of the area." This consensus went far to insure an organization which could develop teamwork and rapport. Community organization cannot lead the acceptance of general purposes by any appreciable amount of time. This statement must be qualified by the admission that creative persons may have advance conceptions of an ideal organization which are not out of line with those which may follow a general agreement on purposes. But these conceptions are only valid so far as the possessors know what will motivate the people at the grass roots. In other words, the greater the distance of the expert, the less his conclusions on organization can be trusted.

Common Purposes Develop in a Definitive Community

An element which goes far to insure the acceptance of a common purpose is a definitive community—one which has the requisites for a local *esprit de corps*. East Oakland represented a section of the larger, metropolitan area in which interpersonal contacts had more meaning than those existing in the area as a whole. The Radford story, too, has shown a basic reliance upon the Radford citizenry as a means of attaining and holding rapport. In essence a community consists of persons who come to have common objectives because their contacts have greater warmth than those permitted the residents of metropolitan areas and commonwealths. The social cement or spirit of a community differs in intensity from that which characterizes the people of a state or of a region.

Factors in Cooperation

Teamwork and cooperation are not easily explained. Efforts which lead to success and a growing civic spirit in some communities meet

only with failure in others. Certain favorable factors must not only be present but must be interrelated in suitable degrees to insure success. Four of these factors will be named; no doubt there are others which apply in specific situations.

Control and Participation at the Grass Roots

Some way of effecting both control and widespread participation at the grass roots seems to be important. The community council of the first sketch discovered that it had to work thru committees and varied cellular groups to insure the coverage of a wide range of interests. Students, teachers, churchmen, residents of special villages, and laymen of varied occupations were enlisted. In any aggregation of working groups of this type, control and leadership pass automatically to the group members themselves. Not all of the leadership is transferred, of course, but enough to make each group feel its own power and importance.

Ease of Assembly

Ease of assembly is important. Regularly scheduled meetings of councils and their subgroups are not as essential as are meetings, often among persons who work on different projects and at different levels. It is here that two-way communication takes place—from the worker doing a special task to the one engaged in general planning, and vice versa. When people can get together only in some sort of delegate capacity, teamwork suffers accordingly.

Cruciality of the Purpose

The purpose which brings about the cooperation effort must be crucial in the life of the community. This is particularly true when cooperation and teamwork have not been very noticeable in community affairs. Problems involving the extension of educational opportunities are not equally potent here. Providing work experience and preventing juvenile delinquency seem to be especially timely at this writing. Neither is new. But each can now attract the attention of serious people in ways which were not permitted a few years ago. This is what is meant by being crucial in community living. What is crucial or what is not is a resultant of many factors. National trends of thinking have their influence here along with thought patterns of more local derivation.

One reason for underlining the cruciality of the emergent problem goes deeply into the frailties of human nature. In proportion as the

problem is of passing importance to the average citizen, there is likely to be a tendency for one group or circle to absorb it to themselves. The greatest bar to effective teamwork is the temptation to build up oneself or one's group at the expense of others. But when the problem is a crucial one, this tendency is more likely to be resisted. A cooperative community is one which has come to resist this tendency as a matter of habit. That it can become a habit is well illustrated in the Radford experience.

But there are still many communities where cruciality alone will not suffice. In these the planning group which would avoid an early failure must maintain its independence. It cannot afford to be identified too closely with the schools, the local government, the social agencies, or the flora of clubs and organizations.

Creative Leadership

The fourth factor is a bit less tangible than the others but of no less importance. Not all persons of civic spirit, actual or potential, are equally imaginative and creative. Some way must be found for bringing together those persons who have more than average shares of these characteristics and who can stimulate creative thinking in each other. Doubtless the reader has already surmised that this was the peculiar contribution of Radford's official group. Some similar group in Schenectady hit upon the possibilities in the unity committee, tho here the record gives no direct clues. This factor is closely related to ease of assembly and to the way or ways in which inter-personal contacts are provided in the life of the community. It cannot be assured by considerations of organizational mechanics. This is but another way of saying that it is based upon the human element in personal association; it cannot be blueprinted for communities at large.

SCHOOL PERSONNEL IN COMMUNITY COOPERATION

There has been a common thread in the problems attacked by these four communities. Invariably they have arisen in a zone which lies partly within reach of the school and partly in the larger reaches of community living. In general, too, it may be said that the problems revealed in the other chapters of this volume are neither wholly school-contained nor the exclusive responsibility of the home or any other agency.

What sort of resources do teachers and pupils possess which can be pooled with those of other persons in attacking community prob-

lems? In general, these resources are of two types: (a) those growing out of the teacher's or pupil's close association with the problem; and (b) those which permit specialized understandings and skills to be utilized. The latter applies more frequently to teachers than to pupils.

Almost any problem which centers in the way people live—in homes, on the streets, in the market place, in the play areas or commercialized recreation, or even in the swing shifts of defense plants—gives the teacher an observation post of marked advantage. This is because the schools come close to including all the children of all the people. It is also due to the school's existence as the primary expression of collective living.

The pupil is close to these problems, too. In some instances he is the one most affected by the new provisions for community betterment. This is particularly true of the positive side of delinquency prevention, of provisions for work experience, and the like. In others, such as the promotion of civic unity, the forces which must be considered have their counterparts in the student life of any all-purpose secondary school. The pupils' resources and contributions have been underlined repeatedly in the Oakland and Radford sketches.

The teachers' specialized understandings and skills have been noted in each of the descriptions. Oakland's committee on social adjustment and Schenectady's increased attention to conferences about specific children are cases in point. Teachers of Mills College, of the East Oakland schools, and of Radford made up the groups which sought to provide better factual data. When teachers' understandings and peculiar contributions were not utilized in the beginning stages of these projects, momentum was soon lost. The interservice club council of East Oakland, for example, became rapidly overshadowed by a superior way of utilizing available resources, the community council.

How are the resources of the teachers to be pooled with those of other persons in the community and of the representatives of other agencies? Some have proposed that the schools assume the leadership of community councils, that the local board of education become the board of community education, which would help to assure a wide utilization of teachers' contributions. The narratives of this chapter have shown how frequently such a plan would fall short of attaining the possibilities which are being realized in Radford, Schenectady, and East Oakland. The schools can afford to share initiation and management with other community groups which have a stake in the outcome.

For the community which includes the school personnel in only minor roles and which keeps them out of the planning circles, the offering can be briefly given. In some instances this has been due to the school's complete failure to get outside its four walls. In such cases the school forces need to do something on their own. They need to broaden the bases of their educational concern. Fortunately, the number of these situations is not sufficiently large to warrant extensive consideration.

But there are other instances where the pressure of the times, the difficulty of assembly, and the competition among community agencies leave classroom teachers and their pupils out of the picture. The chief school officer is included, to be sure, but it is not easy for him to multiply the school's representation in the working groups of the community. This is an end toward which he must work unceasingly and with consummate strategy. But he does not have to work alone. The school personnel includes many persons of creative ability who have adequate backgrounds for leading community groups, for working in the maze of governmental and quasi-governmental agencies. It is thru these persons that teachers and students can come to associate with community groups and make their peculiar contributions.

PART V

A Summary

BY TEAMING THE SCHOOL'S DEMANDS FOR EFFECTIVE
LEARNING EXPERIENCES FOR ALL WITH THE COM-
MUNITY'S WORK AND SERVICE OPPORTUNITIES, BETTER
COMMUNITIES AND BETTER CITIZENS CAN BE DEVELOPED

Issues and Problems

The illustrations of extended educational opportunities presented in this volume suggest ways in which greater flexibility can be attained in school programs—flexibility which will permit schools to adjust more readily to community needs, to broad social needs, and to the developmental demands of individuals. They represent no panacea, however. Careful planning, wise professional leadership, and broad scholarship are necessary. The long-term trend seems clear. The extensions described are not passing fancies. They give evidence of being part of a great wave of attention to the problem of improving education by making it serve all the people, thru aiding them to live more happily and more effectively.

The title of this volume, *TOWARD A NEW CURRICULUM*, as well as the content, has a double emphasis: (a) methods of moving toward new goals, and (b) the building of a curriculum which contributes to the realization of democratic American values under emerging conditions of life.

Some of the ways in which communities are organizing to extend education have been presented. Many more examples might be given and new areas explored. Education for economic living with an emphasis on consumer problems is currently being fostered by many schools. The library as an educative influence for all ages and groups is engaging in new kinds of activities and using new methods which are enabling it to make phenomenal extensions of its educational service. The growing recognition of the importance of democratic social competence and effectiveness has resulted in other changes. The more extensive use of a wide variety of community resources has increased the potential range of educative experiences.

The illustrations presented in earlier chapters, and numerous similar activities, represent local attempts to find new approaches to curriculum development as well as to provide direct experiences in areas where needs are recognized. These emerging programs follow

no pattern of subject fields, nor are they limited to the independent efforts of professional educators. They are related, however, in their common and emphatic emphasis on an "active," "doing," "participating," "cooperating" approach on the part of students and adults in meeting individual and community needs.

Altho many of these activities have had a long history of slow development in a limited number of schools, they are still characterized by numerous unsolved problems. The fundamental questions which schools face are fairly obvious. Which of these activities should be carried on in a particular community? How can a school or community group work most effectively toward new goals? How can new purposes be created? How should the activities undertaken be organized so as to best meet local conditions? Who should foster each type of activity? When should they be carried on, and for what age groups? Where should these activities be housed? These and numerous similar questions could be asked about each extension considered in earlier chapters. Evidence is inadequate to permit broad generalizations concerning the proper basis for these developments. Yet, there are many points on which decisions must be made if schools and educators are to take action. The editors have therefore made a few statements of position in relation to what they feel to be significant in the current situation with very brief explanatory statements. These may serve to focus attention on some of the major issues and provide a basis for the analysis and criticism of future programs within individual schools and communities.

PLANNING SHOULD BE BASED ON NEEDS

While individual authors have displayed enthusiasm for the varied activities which they have presented, it has been in terms of a total setting or situation. The extensions described cannot be judged as being good or bad except as evidence is presented as to whether or not they meet needs. Some of the needs mentioned are found in many communities. Yet, it would be unwise for any school to accept these programs and attempt to introduce them for a particular student group without careful preliminary analysis.

Social and Economic Factors

Many of the extensions described have been developing over a long period of time. The nursery-school movement has a rich background. Community participation has had some recognition and even some study over a quarter of a century. Work experience has

been used on the college level for many years, but has only recently received widespread attention on the secondary level. It was the pioneers in these areas who first recognized some of the changes in home and community life, as well as in the vocational pattern, which should be recognized thru the schools. As varied social and economic factors influencing our lives have been more clearly defined, the schools have been increasingly able to make adjustments. The importance of literacy was recognized long ago and became an important reason for early developments in adult education. The necessity for adult discussion and understanding of broad national and international policies became more clear with the increased tempo of social change which characterized American life during the last twenty years. The need for retraining of industrial workers thru adult classes is a direct outgrowth of the kind of industrial economy which we have established. So, too, in future developments, social and economic factors should be studied. Any sound determination of the type of educational activities needed to aid people in obtaining the life they wish to have must rest on an accurate analysis of social trends.

Innumerable illustrations might be cited showing that changed social, political, and economic conditions create demands for new kinds of services from the schools. It is the thesis of this volume that schools are responsible for determining ways in which they might serve, and for working with community agencies and with child and adult groups in developing a recognition of problems, and in seeking solutions.

The growth in worldwide interdependence and the demands for education for world citizenship have been accompanied by an increase in community consciousness. The importance of group action on a community basis has been stressed in earlier chapters. This close relation of the school to the community carries with it the implication that schools must analyze needs in terms of community conditions. Obviously, communities differ. In some situations 90 percent of the young people remain in the community. In others, 90 percent leave before they reach twenty-five years of age. Certainly, social and economic conditions vary widely from one center to another. Steeltown may have hundreds of working mothers. Gopher Prairie may have none. On the Gold Coast, where 80 percent of the adults are college graduates, the adult educational interests are undoubtedly very different from those at Milltown. The kind of educational activities must, if they are to be defensible, depend on the types of

age groups within the community and the particular contribution which education can make to their living.

All communities have socially useful work which needs to be done. Earlier chapters have shown how this may vary from needed recreational facilities to emergency productive jobs. Schools have unique opportunities for realistic and vitalizing experiences if they will take advantage of these situations. The potential attitudes of social concern which may be built are not of minor importance. By teaming the school's demands for effective learning experiences with the community's work and service opportunities, better communities and better citizens can be developed.

Individual Growth and Development

With increased knowledge of the human growth process, new standards have been developed in respect to the physical and psychological conditions which are held to be desirable for children. For the young, we seek freedom from fear, or a feeling of security; opportunity for free spontaneous physical activity; and stimulating play situations with other children. For adolescents we want opportunities for the successful handling of adolescent tasks: (a) discovering a place in life and clarifying a philosophy of living, (b) establishing satisfying peer relations, (c) achieving independence from family, and (d) adjusting to physical growth changes. These are typical of the things we want for various age groups from infancy to old age.

Altho these favorable growth conditions are wanted for all, there are many who have no opportunity in terms of these standards. While a particular environment may be regarded as favorable, certain individuals may not have access to the experiences or conditions which will promise growth and continued development in desired directions. Many examples are found in school offerings. Social activities may be provided, but if the 15 percent who need it most fail to participate, either because they cannot afford it or because they do not have the necessary social skills, this group is not benefited. The problem is one of determining the needs of all individuals in order that educational provisions may be focused specifically.

In addition to our knowledge of physical and psychological development, we have a long tradition of values. We have sought within this country to develop social and economic conditions which would assure the basic elements of sound mental and physical health as well as certain freedoms, rights, and opportunities. Hence, the concepts of individual and social needs are intimately related.

The Determination of Needs

Sometimes the determination of needs has been regarded as a mechanical act to be performed by a research department or by a psychologist far removed from a particular school. Certainly there is a place for research in the definition of certain types of needs. However, when the operational stage is reached, and planning is being done within a particular community, it is important that the group concerned comes to see its own needs. In achieving this end, group study and discussion of community activities and problems are often helpful. Only as the discovery of needs leads to the formulation of purposes and plans of action can significant progress be made.

As a particular group studies and plans, it will have occasion to gather facts, to analyze known problems, and to survey situations and conditions. If educational psychologists, doctors, or educational sociologists are available, they, as experts, can frequently aid in securing information and making interpretations which are more incisive and discriminating than those made by a lay group working alone. However, expert help is not essential. All communities have many problems which can be successfully studied by the careful use of common devices such as the questionnaire, the interview, and the deliberation of community representatives. A clarification and determination of needs are basic to an intelligent awareness, and the formulation of well-directed purposes and sound action.

MEETING NEEDS IS A COMMUNITY CONCERN

In some communities confusion has developed in respect to the responsibility of the school. One school has been criticized because it did nothing; another because it did too much. Schools have been said to be taking over the functions of the home, the church, and social agencies.

While institutions and individuals will probably always be attacked for one reason or another, it seems perfectly clear that the conditions and needs with which the school is working are a community concern. The school should not supplant normal activities, nor should it interfere with the majority of family plans by setting up competing activities or taking over experiences which parents usually provide for their children. The school should supplement the ordinary activities to make for a richer, fuller individual life and a better educated citizen.

It is the community's responsibility, thru its board of education, school district meeting, or other means, to select the schooling which it will foster. This ultimate decision being assigned to the community in no way releases the professional staff from leadership in working with children and citizens in analyzing and defining the most appropriate kinds of educational developments and in revealing positively how they can be attained.

Certainly any group within the community, educational or non-educational, has a right to initiate activities to meet special conditions which it recognizes. This in no way relieves the school or the community from the necessity of action in respect to the needs of all members of the community. If certain groups are being adequately cared for by individual private agencies, there is no reason why such programs should not be encouraged by every possible means short of the granting of public funds.

MAXIMUM RESULTS DEMAND COOPERATION

Previous chapters have shown something of the social basis, nature, and implications of the extensions of educational opportunity described. The process of action and cooperation by which various programs were developed was not always revealed. If extensions of the kind described are to be conducted effectively, the school must function as a part of and in cooperation with the community. The neighborhood, village, city, or county is a very important unit for educational purposes. While financial, supervisory, and administrative units may be otherwise constituted, the work with individuals can be developed best on a local unit basis. Then citizens and the various organizations participating with the student group, whether they be two years old or sixty, can work and plan together.

Previous chapters have stressed the values of community cooperation whether it be informal, as in Radford, Virginia, or on a permanently organized basis, as in Oakland, California. Many community accomplishments of the war years would have been impossible without the combined efforts of all groups which could be interested. If a suitable educational environment is to be provided and the educational values of community participation made available for boys and girls and adults, educators must go beyond the classroom with the help and assistance of numerous individuals and groups.

From the standpoint of efficiency it is quite clear that the various organizations in a community can best avoid duplication and most wisely use their resources, if they work and plan cooperatively.

When any community seriously studies the problem of providing appropriate educational opportunity, it will naturally encounter questions involving the duplication of leadership and interference with church, personal, and family plans of individuals. Questions may arise as to whether or not the school is assuming the function of other agencies. The place of the family versus government in the guidance and care of children may be questioned. Private agencies may appear to be in conflict with public agencies. While these are potential issues which lie in the background, they need not become barriers if community groups will cooperatively analyze their common problems and determine the ways in which each can function best. In any such considerations, organizations, parents and other citizens, as well as children, should participate.

Sharing of work and responsibility on the part of local organizations should be supplemented by genuine working together among local, state, and federal agencies. The evidence is available to show that certain local schools will require state and/or federal help to do their work adequately. There are many desirable services which are, for the present, economically possible only on the basis of some unit larger than our thousands of small communities. Certain types of health and psychiatric service, as well as various kinds of special education, will require a large school unit for support. Various kinds of stimulation and experimentation can best be provided on state and national bases.

Many resources are now available from state agencies, but are not being used. Colleges and universities frequently have staff members in fields such as agriculture, medicine and health, education, social work, and journalism who could be enlisted for assistance on community problems. Areas such as health, sanitation, sex education, juvenile delinquency, soil conservation, agricultural crops and products suggest numerous questions and difficulties which could be better handled if the aids available, usually without charge, were used.

In view of our social structure and organization, it seems quite reasonable to seek both inter- and intra-community cooperation and sharing in the interests of doing effective work and reaching goals.

EDUCATIONAL OPPORTUNITY SHOULD BE EXTENDED TO ALL GROUPS

Altho little specific attention has been directed to it, the issue of the democratization of education has existed in connection with several of the earlier chapters. While the schools of this country have

made progress, they still are not truly democratic. Costs and regulations serve to bar or eliminate many from the secondary school. On the nursery-school level, there has been a tendency to accept this kind of opportunity for the very poor or the wealthy. On the adult level, the situation has varied from community to community. Certainly, programs to date have favored the joiners as opposed to the nonjoiners. Most schools have thought little of how they could serve those who do not happen to enjoy discussions or class groups. Work experience should be provided for the economically able as well as the unable. Experience in community service is good for those in favored communities as well as those in the poorer, less fortunate districts. Courses in personal living are probably more frequently offered to students with low academic ability or to those with inadequate family background. There seems to be no reason to deny these experiences and opportunities in improving personal living to those who on the surface appear to have been more fortunate in life. There is no suggestion in the above statements that all should have identical experiences; there is a recommendation that all should have opportunities in any and all areas in accord with their need rather than in accord with what may have been the traditional program.

Thruout our schools there has been a mistaken notion that the mere offering of some kind of an educational program met the need. Thousands of such programs go to make up our widely praised democratic school system. Is there justification, however, in calling any educational offering democratic unless it seriously tries to meet the needs of all individuals within the area served? It would seem that all public education should strive to extend educational opportunities to everyone within the community and that these opportunities should be commensurate with the full range of the needs of the individuals and the community concerned.

THE GREATEST PROGRESS CAN BE MADE WITH TRAINED PERSONNEL

The various extensions of educational opportunity which have been described necessitate teachers with differing abilities. The recruitment of teachers competent to direct successfully the new activities has been a persistent difficulty. New skills have been needed which had no relationship to subjectmatter preparation. The ability to lead children and adults in a wide range of free developmental activities was demanded. Competence in guiding the experiences and consequent growth of individuals became more clearly recognized as one of the qualifications required.

Obviously, this type of teacher has been talked about for years as being needed in the schools. Extensions of education, which had no basis in the usual school subjects, made the need more clear and certain. Careful selection as well as preservice education directed toward the development of the needed teaching abilities is all-important. In-service education must continue growth in terms of local needs and new developments.

The extending of opportunity to new groups and to new periods of the day, week, and year; and the offering of new kinds of educational experiences have frequently served to increase the burden placed upon teachers. No generalization concerning what has happened is possible. In some situations new activities were substituted for old. Occasionally the introduction of new kinds of opportunities has added to the hours of a teacher's work, but has so improved teaching conditions as to simplify the teacher's task. In some communities teachers can well carry a greater responsibility without hardship. Probably it is more common, however, to find that increasing the range of educational opportunities within a community temporarily tends to increase unduly the burden on regular teachers. It is probably necessary to make some sacrifice to start new programs, but care must be used to assure that teachers are not deprived of wholesome, well-rounded living which includes more than continuous association with students. Unless appropriate safeguards are established, teachers will be overworked and the desired outcomes will be lost.

One prominent and often hotly contested issue centers in the question of whether or not volunteer help should be used. There are many arguments on both sides. It happens that there are many community needs that will go unmet, at least temporarily, unless volunteer help is used. Certainly more can be done within a community if high-school students and adults are permitted to participate. The values to the volunteers are too important to be overlooked. Community programs profit from wide participation.

There are certain types of activities, however, which require professionally trained personnel; others do not. It seems highly important that volunteers be used to do only those things which they are capable of doing well. Trained nursery-school teachers may be available on a volunteer basis; excellent adult teachers may offer their services; competent parents may supervise community activities; successful craftsmen may guide work experiences. This in no way denies the need, however, for an able professional staff,

carrying the burden where specially trained help is necessary. Over the long period of time, programs will generally succeed best which have the most highly trained staff working on a basis of adequate remuneration. There will probably always be a place, tho, for some volunteer workers.

THE SOLUTION OF ADMINISTRATIVE PROBLEMS IS BASIC

Little attention has been given the many and varied financial and other administrative problems which accompany the extension of educational opportunities. This in no way belittles their importance. They deserve more complete treatment as a separate problem. They are mentioned here because they must be reckoned with if new ventures are to succeed.

In the financing of education, the illustrations cited have presented at least three bases of support: fees to be paid by those who benefit, funds contributed by various individuals and private and public organizations, and taxation. In general, the fee basis does not appear sound. Schools should not be serving special groups in accord with their ability to pay, but should serve all groups and individuals in terms of their needs. Contributions of individuals and groups are probably better than fees, but undoubtedly the best form of long-time support is to be found in an equitable and sound tax system.

The issue of local, state, and federal support has been raised. Undoubtedly, the federal and state support will be needed if adequate opportunities are to be provided. Yet, every effort must be made to preserve local initiative in establishing and conducting schools. This appears to be the only way in which they can be kept in harmony with needs and be maintained as truly educative influences.

Other issues in this area are numerous:

1. Should schools be used for preschool, adult, and informal groups?
2. Should educational activities be held in other than school buildings?
3. Should transportation be provided for preschool and adult classes?
4. Should schools provide facilities for rest and recreation?
5. Should schools provide an up-to-date food service for all ages?

The answers to these and similar questions are, of course, matters of local decision. Yet, it appears that the existence of traditional procedures should in no way prevent a community from providing

the education it wants and needs. Questions of administration and finance should center on determining how needs can be met most efficiently and effectively.

CONTINUOUS EVALUATION IS ESSENTIAL TO PROGRESS

As yet schools are seldom evaluating the results of their efforts to extend educational opportunities. Progress is certain to be limited until this is done more generally. Several steps appear to be important and necessary if evidence is to be gathered on the outcomes of programs of the type described in this volume.

First, purposes of activities must be clarified. Too frequently those responsible have but vague notions of why a particular series of activities is being undertaken. These must be thought thru in terms of the benefits to the participants which should result. The nature, quantity, and quality of growth desired, and the kind of behavior sought, must be carefully defined.

Second, ways must be found for gathering evidence on the attainment of outcomes. Obviously, paper-and-pencil tests will seldom be adequate. Situations must be discovered or created in which evidence can be gathered. Informal observations of behavior and growth in interests and action away from school in unsupervised situations may be involved.

The task is admittedly difficult, but certainly ways can be found to gather evidence which is better than that now available. Certainly, the program of evaluation must be sufficiently comprehensive to include the full range of extended opportunities. Only in this way can these newer activities be held in proper perspective.

THE TASK OF THE FUTURE

Only a few of the ways in which communities are extending educational opportunities have been presented. Only a few of the principal issues and problems have been listed. However, enough have been given to outline in broad terms the means by which schools are moving toward a new curriculum—group study and action, a continuous analysis of needs, communitywide participation, and the extension of opportunities of new kinds and for new groups. By keeping close to their communities and by providing leadership in determining how they can improve the quality of living, schools are moving forward to new activities and to new ways of working.

It seems clear that a restricted concept of what education is and how its functions are to be served will not suffice as schools move

toward a new curriculum. Education must be conceived as broadly as life itself, as broadly as democracy itself. Curriculum policies and plans growing out of such a concept will be formulated with reference to the needs and problems of society and of individuals. The curriculum will be focused upon the culture—its values, its conflicts, and its potentialities. The competencies required of the individual as a personality and as a member of social groups will be developed. As educational opportunities are extended, education will make a difference in the realities of everyday community living.

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Comments on "Toward a New Curriculum"

The many and varied extensions of educational opportunities described in previous chapters suggest two things about the schools:

1. What they regard as their responsibilities
2. How they think their purposes can be attained.

It is important, therefore, to ask several questions: Are schools working on the most important problems with which they might well be concerned? Are the methods being used by schools appropriate to the goals sought? Are the methods in harmony with sound principles of learning? For example, are the means used adapted to the learners, and are they the most effective procedures for attaining desired results? Only as questions of these kinds are constantly applied, and extensive evidence gathered, can there be any assurance that developing programs are moving in proper directions.

As a partial means of evaluating and criticizing the types of extensions presented in this volume, one specialist in educational psychology and another in educational sociology were asked to prepare memoranda commenting on the yearbook. Stephen M. Corey, professor of educational psychology at the University of Chicago; and Lloyd Allen Cook, associate professor of educational sociology at Ohio State University, prepared statements, excerpts of which are quoted in the following paragraphs.

COMMENTS OF AN EDUCATIONAL SOCIOLOGIST

The yearbook pleads a cause—adaptive, democratic education. It reports current school practices viewed as needed extensions of our educational system.

The concept of change underlies the volume. How changes are to

be brought about in the educational system is not discussed in any detail.

That needs now evident will carry over into the postwar period is assumed, but little attention is given to transitional problems.

The kind of education discussed in the volume is a growth process with a community emphasis. Its major "growth lines" or emphases are about as follows:

1. Regards education as a lifelong process, reaching from early childhood thru adolescence to senescence, available at public cost as the right of every citizen.

2. Views its most basic purpose as meeting the needs of learners as these needs are made evident in psychosocial growth processes, defining need always in reference to democratic ideals.

3. Organizes the school to further a common (or general) education for each developmental age level, rather than college entrance for a few, supplementing this "core" program by separate courses and guidance.

4. Makes the local area an object of special concern and study, seeking to improve its way of life, mediating the impact of non-local influences and teaching the role of community in an inter-dependent world.

5. Conducts the school as a shared experience in cooperative living, with the teacher's major function that of leading the group process by individual guidance and group work in the interest of all its members.

6. Serves as a community center for nonschool youth and adult groups, providing staff and plant facilities on request, subject only to a primary concern for school-age children.

7. Works actively with other local agencies to coordinate and improve child-care and youth services, taking the initiative in organizing areawide community action if and as the situation appears to warrant.

8. Evaluates its work in light of changes made in learner attitudes and behaviors, as well as in facts and skills, and by improvements in home living, community conditions, and agency services.

What grip do we as educators have on the human needs, the social realities, with which we purport to deal? We do not know how to lead the group in the interest of all its members, but we are learning. The public should be taught that social problems will grow greater, not less—that around-the-table thinking is a need at all times. Coordinating councils must be structured deeply into community life,

with members from all social agencies, civic and youth serving interests. A more thoro search should be made for local leadership, some of which might well be provided by schoolboards with a consequent reduction in teaching load and school duties. Nearby colleges, linked with large universities, should be prepared to give continuous, low cost, technical aid on community study and action processes.

The yearbook impresses one with the interest manifested, now faint, now strong, in group processes. In comparison with the individual, or psychological, approach to personal and social adjustment problems, the group work approach as understood in schools of social work will become better known and better used than at present. There is, to be sure, no conflict between the two, since each compliments the other.

COMMENTS OF AN EDUCATIONAL PSYCHOLOGIST

The importance of having learners engage in activities which are in their judgments reasonable and sensibly related to their own values or their own goals, is emphasized in practically every chapter. From one point of view this might be called the integrating theme of the entire yearbook. Whether the authors discuss the extension of the educational opportunities of the young child or adult, or the provision of work opportunities for adolescents, or camp experiences for children, or service to the community, they all stress the necessity of having these educational activities related in a sensible and meaningful fashion to the needs or goals or values of the learners.

The fact that this relationship should be clear and reasonable *to the learner* is of crucial significance. It is probable that no pupil learns unless he sees *some* relations between what he wants and what he is expected to do in school. The child who learns to use a saw in order to get a kind word from the teacher sees the relationship between sawing and the desired commendation. Otherwise he would not learn to saw. The relationship, however, is one that is entirely a consequence of the structure of the school-teacher-pupil situation. This sort of relationship has quite different consequences from one another learner sees between learning to saw and making a wagon that he greatly desires.

Thruout the yearbook continuous recognition is given the fact that learning is an active process. The contributors seem to agree that if changes in behavior are to ensue, the learners must be active, they must do something. Probably because many of the authors had

been impressed by the sterility of much of the purely verbal activity that passes for significant learning in many schools, they sometimes give the impression of being too exclusively concerned with large muscle, overt, physical activity. Frequently, less is said than might have been about important and related verbal learnings which also can involve a great deal of activity of a meaningful sort.

Another indication of the authors' appreciation of valid principles of learning is the consideration given to problem solving. Concern with this type of learning characterizes many of the chapters and manifests itself most commonly in descriptions of activities which involve having learners take more responsibility for participation in planning their own educational activities. As illustrated time and again, this problem solving process involves careful planning, a proper execution or implementation of plans that have been made, and finally an evaluation of the consequences. As will be noted below, the authors of the yearbook are disposed to give greatest attention to planning and to execution of the plans and are relatively less concerned with evaluation or appraisal.

This frequent reference to the necessity for having learners identify their own problems, accumulate and employ source and other materials, carry out more or less complex lines of activity, and finally try to determine what has happened to them, implies a rather complete acceptance of the point of view that most effective learning is purposeful and self-directed. The teacher is a resource and not a "teller" or "questioner." The learner who is attempting to achieve a status or attain a goal that he believes important actively seeks the help of a teacher if he believes he can help him.

Psychologists are in agreement on the importance of bringing together and integrating many discreet learning activities so that ultimately a large, total experience has unity and hence maximum meaning for the learner. From at least one point of view the authors of this yearbook seem to be influenced by this principle. This is evident in their frequent recommendations of a "project" type of learning. The word itself is not used but many of the learning experiences described in connection with the extension of educational opportunities involve activities that are consistent with the "project" idea in its best sense. One of the desirable consequences of a successful project—successful in the sense that the learner is satisfied—is that the very nature of the activity serves to integrate many otherwise diverse experiences. For example, the children described in the chapter on work experiences who helped in the care of certain school-

rooms, learned habits, attitudes, and undertakings that were integrated and functional because taken all together they enabled the children to do better something significant that they wanted to do.

Despite the recognition of integration from this point of view, one of the psychological weaknesses in the yearbook is the relative infrequency with which these extensions of educational opportunity are adequately related to the more conventional type of school activity. Superficial attention is given to this problem in several of the chapters, such as the ones on service to the community and on summer camps, but at no place is there a penetrating discussion of the necessity for relating these newer curriculum experiences to those that are conventional and which continue to occupy most of the time of children in school.

The proposition that is basic to maximum transfer of training can be stated somewhat as follows: *Habits and understandings and attitudes should be learned under circumstances as nearly as possible like those that will attend the use of these learnings.* While the authors of the yearbook do not discuss transfer of training as such, their awareness of its importance is illustrated in their insistence upon having extended learning experiences real and lifelike. When it is recommended that children learn the skills and understandings and attitudes that are essential for successful work practices, it is urged that these young people actually get a job and do some work, not that they merely read books and talk about what is necessary in order to do successful work. This difference between learning words about an activity and learning to practice or engage in the activity is fundamental to one of the theses of the yearbook. This should not be interpreted to mean that the distinction is discussed and made explicit but rather that it is recognized and implied in many of the illustrations. An older psychology assumed that the idea leads to the act. Much of our current educational practice rests on the same assumption. We act as if we believed, for example, that learning words about democracy would result in democratic behavior. The contributors to this yearbook make no such error.

Psychologists recognize, too, that in order for concepts to be adequate, they must be rooted in a rich variety of firsthand perceptual experiences. Every teacher who has heard children try to explain their meanings for words like "postwar," or "democracy," or "honesty," or any other one of a long list of abstract words, recognizes how limited these meanings frequently are because of an insufficient background of perceptual experiences. The authors of

the present volume apparently are well aware of the need for providing learners with many opportunities for a multiplicity of firsthand experiences. For example, there is consistent recognition of the importance of field trips and manual activity and the use of aids to learning that increase the number of perceptual impressions a learner gets. Such precautions go far toward eliminating one of the most pervasive faults in current educational practice, namely, the unjustifiable emphasis upon verbal behavior as constituting not only the means but also the end of learning activity.

One weakness in the yearbook that bears upon this matter of providing learners with numerous and varied perceptual experiences is the tendency for some of the authors to devote more attention to a description of the administrative arrangements involved in extending educational opportunities than to a description of the fundamental activities involved in the experiences themselves.

In this connection it probably should be noted that but slight attention is given to procedures whereby meaningful generalizations might result from the firsthand experiences that are involved in many of the "extended" educational experiences. This problem might be stated more clearly by insisting that a variety of perceptual experiences constitutes a necessary but not a sufficient condition for adequate learning. The sufficient condition obtains when learners strive to arrive at valid generalizations, which are a consequence of their firsthand experiences. For example, it is one thing to render service to a community by cleaning up vacant lots and quite another thing to make this activity a basis for developing generalizations about waste, community pride, landscape beautification, the use of idle property, weed control, provision for neighborhood recreational plots, and the management of work gangs. When valid generalizations result, the firsthand experience serves many purposes. There is reason to believe that the authors of the yearbook recognized the importance of distilling off from these firsthand experiences important generalizations, but little emphasis was given to this aspect of learning.

In the judgment of the writer the most serious psychological criticism that could be made of all the recommendations that appear in the yearbook is the very casual attention given to finding out whether or not important and significant changes have taken place in the behavior of the learners who take advantage of these extended educational opportunities. Even when a contributor seems to be concerned with the consequences of one of the extended curriculum

experiences the description of what happened is apt to be in terms of the money earned by the youngster or the number of bushels of produce that he had harvested rather than the actual changes that took place in his behavior. In general, too, there is little attention paid to getting judgments from the learners regarding the significance of what had happened to them.

ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

The yearbook committee wishes to acknowledge a great debt to the individuals who made the volume possible by providing excellent descriptions of extensions of educational opportunity in their school situations.

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The Department of Supervision and Curriculum Development,

NATIONAL EDUCATION ASSOCIATION OF THE UNITED STATES

Who belongs to the Department of Supervision and Curriculum Development, NEA?

Membership in the Department is open to all persons interested in developing better schools. Members include supervisors, teachers, administrators, professors of education, and other persons with similar professional interest. You are invited to join.

What are some of its beliefs?

1. SOCIAL GAINS of recent years are compatible with the freedoms for which we are fighting. It is the job of the public schools to support these gains and to use every effort to sustain and extend them.
2. PUPILS AND TEACHERS must study realistically the pressing problems of the war and postwar periods, exploding such myths as race superiority, economic imperialism, and political isolationism.
3. THE BEST MODERN METHODS of teaching reading, arithmetic, and other tools must be extended to all schools. Abstract, meaningless study must be replaced with practical application.
4. THE RESOURCEFUL, SELF-CONTROLLED SOLDIER who respects leadership is preferred by American military leaders. This is the kind of citizen our democracy needs in peace and war. Schools must develop such self-discipline.
5. WORK EXPERIENCES in agriculture and industry hold educational values for youth. Schools must take responsibility for developing these values.
6. THE PATRIOTIC DUTY of teachers is to stay on the job unless required to serve in the armed forces.
7. JUVENILE DELINQUENCY can be checked by enlarging school services to youth and children. Increased local, state, and federal funds must be channeled thru the schools to provide these facilities.
8. LOCAL CONTROL should keynote the schools' attack upon wartime problems, altho state and federal help is essential and should be augmented.

(Copies of the complete statement, including long-range program and problems for immediate attack, may be obtained from the Department.)

The annual dues of \$4 entitle members to a subscription to *Educational Leadership*, the journal of the Department, a copy of the current yearbook, and all other privileges of membership. For further information write: Ruth Cunningham, executive secretary, Department of Supervision and Curriculum Development, NEA, 1201 Sixteenth Street, N. W., Washington 6, D. C.

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